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FOR

TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

EDITED BY

WM. L. NEILL

WITH REFERENCE TO THE WORKS OF

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Compiled Especially with the View to the Needs of the Student, in Pleasing
Narrative Form

Thoroughly Indexed in an Alphabetically Arranged and Tabulated Manner,
for Easy and Direct Reference to American History, Civil Government,
Biographies, Geography, Literature, The Mechanical and Industrial
Arts and the Various Natural Sciences

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A CHAT WITH THE PUPIL

We want to have a little chat with you, regarding the great necessity that you have a proper reference in your home, to use in connection with the school book, for a better understanding of your studies.

The school book, which we shall call the text book, has not the space to devote to detail, but is confined to a brief outline of the important facts, or events, that you should know or understand, to benefit by your studies.

You can perhaps memorize the text book, and may repeat the same, word for word, yet have little understanding of the subject. To succeed with your studies you should not only know the fact, but understand clearly why it is a fact. That you should have further information than is given by the text book, is shown by the editors notes in the same. You should be self-reliant, look up this information for yourself, and not depend for help or information upon the brief lectures of the instructor in the class room.

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In this volume, we believe, we have provided you with the best possible help and reference. Compiled especially for your needs, covering those subjects that you have the most need for reference. Written in a pleasing style, easy to understand, concise, causing no unnecessary reading, yet giving those details necessary for a clear comprehensive grasp of the subject. Thoroughly indexed, so that questions can be answered quickly, clearly and satisfactorily.

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AMERICAN HISTORY

UNITED STATES

AMERICAN HISTORY

UNITED STATES

FIRST PERIOD

EXPLORATIONS AND DISCOVERIES

In the story of the "United States of America," the student will find the most absorbing interest. The great unknown world with its savage natives, the discoveries by the white man, the tales of the conquests by those hardy adventurers, who braved the perils of the sea and the unknown in their thirst for gold.

The courage and perseverance of the pioneers to conquer the wilderness in building for themselves homes, in their perseverance against tyranny and oppression, in fact, to follow the growth and rise of our country, from an unknown, almost uninhabited, land, to its present great proportion and its millions of homes and people, leading the world with their industries and achievements, creating a nation in its civilization and power second to none among the countries of the world.

This grand Continent on which we live, known as the Western Continent, extending in length ten thousand miles. Stretching from the regions of the north, where snow and ice forever abound, to the rocky cape in the far south, that lifts its head out of the waters of the Antarctic Ocean. In the remote past there was not a house or human being on the face of this great continent. When or how did the first man get here? None among our learned men have been able to tell. Very many years ago, just how many no one knows, there was a people, or, to be more correct, there were several peoples, that lived and prospered here. This we know from the remains of temples, bridges, etc., built by more skillful hands than those of the inhabitants of which we have any clear

knowledge. Many of these structures were built of immense blocks of stone, some of which were carved with figures of men, animals and other objects. These ruins found in South and Central America, one of which a temple, a perfect circle in form, showing skillful knowledge of architecture.

High up on the mountain tops of Peru, where neither tree nor shrub can grow, are stone wall inclosures, thousands in number, which, according to the tradition among the Peruvians, are the remains of structures that were built "before the sun shone."

In our country, the United States, there are numerous evidences of a former civilization, though of a different kind from those of Mexico and South America.

Instead of great ruins in which are beautiful blocks of cut stone, we have, as a rule, mounds of earth, or earth and rough stone. These, found mostly in the valleys of the Ohio and Mississippi, are of various sizes and shapes. Some are round, some are square, others have the form of animals. We call these people Mound Builders. (see Mound Builders.)

Perhaps we may think that the mounds were made by the ancestors of the people whom we call Indians. Learned men, who have carefully studied the subject, deny this. They tell us that the mounds were constructed by a people who occupied the country long before the Indians or their forefathers came here; and their decision seems to be supported by the character and habits of the Indians, as well as by other facts. It was these people whom we call the Indians that we

found here when the country was discovered. The origin of these people is a much vexed and unsettled question. The theory having the balance of repute in its favor derives them from Asia, ferrying them across Behring Strait.

The number of human inhabitants of the entire continent of America, from the Frozen Ocean to Cape Horn, did not exceed five million, it is supposed, when Columbus sailed from Spain; and that within the present domain of our Republic—The United States of America—there were only a little more than one million souls, or one to each three and a half square miles of territory. The people of the latter region seemed to have all come from the same original stock, excepting some on the borders of the Gulf of Mexico. They had high cheek bones and broad faces; heavy dark eyes; jet black hair, lank and incapable of curling, because of its peculiar structure; and skins of a dull, copper color. They spoke more than a hundred dialects, or peculiar forms of expressing language, all springing, evidently, from a common root.

They were all by habit, silent, or would talk but little in society, and could endure great mental or physical suffering without visible emotion. Their plan of government was simple, and there were very few breakers of the law. Their religion was as simple as their civil government. They believed in a great Good Spirit and a great Evil Spirit, each supreme in its sphere; and they deified, or made God, the sun, moon, stars, meteors, fire, water, thunder, wind and everything else which seemed to be superior to themselves. There were no unbelievers among them. They had no written language, excepting rude picture-writing, made on rocks, barks of trees or the dried hides of beasts. Their historical records were made upon the memory from parent to child, as were their legends, and so transmitted from one generation to another. Their dwellings were rude huts made of poles leaning to a common centre, and cov-

ered with bark or the skins of beasts. The men were engaged in war, hunting and fishing, whilst the women did all the domestic drudgery. The women also bore all burdens during long journeys; put up the tents or the wigwams, as their dwellings were called; prepared the food and clothing; wove mats for beds, and planted, cultivated, and gathered the scanty crops of corn, beans, peas, potatoes, melons and tobacco, wherever these products were raised. In winter the skins of wild beasts formed the clothing of these rude people, and in summer the men wore only a wrapper around their loins. They sometimes tattooed themselves, that is, pricked the skin in lines to form shapes of objects, and making them permanent by coloring matter, put in the punctures; and they were generally ornamented with the claws of bears, the pearly parts of shells and the plumage of birds. Their money consisted of little tubes made of shells, fastened upon belts or strung on little thongs of deer's hide, which was called wampum. These collections were used in traffic, and in giving tokens of friendship. Their weapons of war were bows and arrows, tomahawks or hatchets, war-clubs, and scalping knives. Some wore shields of bark and also corselets of hides, for protections.

The civil governor of a tribe or nation was called a Sachem; the military leader was called a Chief. They were natural, proud and haughty, and had great respect for personal dignity and honor. The Indians had many of the nobler traits of human nature, but with a few notable exceptions, such as the five nations who formed the Iroquois Confederacy, within the present domain of the State of New York, and the dwellers in the softer climate around the Gulf of Mexico; they were as a whole, cruel savages, throughout the entire country, north of the parallel of Alabama, when the Europeans came and made permanent settlements here.

When the white man came early in the sixteenth century, to make permanent settlements in our country, he found the dusky inhabitants, as we

have observed, speaking about a hundred different dialects. But there were only eight radically distinct nations. They are known as the Algonquins, Iroquois Confederacy, Cherokees, Catawbas, Uchees, Natches, Mobilians or Floridians, and Dakotahs or Sioux. Of the numerous nations which occupied the great American continent at the time of the discovery by the Europeans, the two most advanced in power and refinement were undoubtedly those of Mexico and Peru. The Aztecs, of Mexico, and the Incas, of Peru.

ALGONQUINS.

Algonquins was a name given by the French to a large collection of families north and south of the great lakes, who speaking dialects of the same language, seemed to belong to the same nation. These inhabited the territory now included in all Canada, New England, a part of New York and Pennsylvania, the States of New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland and Virginia, Eastern North Carolina, above Cape Fear, a large portion of Kentucky and Tennessee and all north and west of these States eastward of the Mississippi River. Within the folds of the Algonquin nation were the Huron-Iroquois, in Canada, New York, Pennsylvania and Ohio; a few families in southern Virginia and upper North Carolina, and the Iroquois Confederacy in the State of New York.

IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY.

The Iroquois Confederacy was a remarkable fact in history. It was composed of five large families, each having the dignified title of a nation. These nations were named Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas and Senecas. They were sub-divided into smaller families or tribes, each having its symbol Coat-of-Arms, such as the bear, the wolf, the eagle, the heron, the beaver, the deer, the turkey or the tortoise. They occupied a belt of country extending across the present State of New York, from the Hudson River to Lake Erie, south of the Adirondack range of great hills, and north of the

Kratsbergs, or, as they are commonly called, the Catskill Mountains.

When Europeans became acquainted with the nations of this league and the form of government, they were filled with admiration on account of its wisdom and strength. They called these nations "The Romans of the New World," because they seemed to have many things in common with that ancient people, especially in military affairs. As in old Rome the soldiers were honored above all other citizens, so they were among the Iroquois; and the warriors, under their chiefs, were all-powerful in public affairs. Whatever was done in the civil councils of the separate nations, or of the Confederacy, was subjected to review by the soldiery, who had the right to call councils whenever they pleased, and approve or disapprove public measures. And so careful were the civil authorities to pay deference to the warriors that general answers to questions of state policy were postponed until the soldiers might be known. Therefore, in nearly every such council, decisions were made by unanimous consent.

As each of the confederated nations was divided into several tribes, there were thirty or forty Sachems in the league. These had inferior officers under them, answering to our magistrates in towns; and so the civil power of the government was quite widely distributed. There was not a man who gained his office otherwise than by his own merits, and he held it only during good behavior. Any unworthy action was attended by dismissal from office and the penalty of public scorn. They, as well as the military leaders, accepted no salary, and gave away any perquisites of their office in time of peace, and their share of plunder in time of war. They felt themselves amply paid by the confidence and esteem of the people.

Each canton, or nation, was a distinct republic, entirely independent of the others in what may be termed the domestic concerns of the State; but each was bound to the others of the league by ties of honor and of general interest. Each had an equal voice in

the General Council or Congress of the league, and each possessed a sort of veto power, which prevented any absolute ruling by the central power.

The powers and duties of the chief magistrate of the Confederacy were similar to those imposed upon the President of the United States. He had authority to "light the great Council Fire"—to assemble the General Congress—by sending a messenger to the Sachem of each nation, calling him to a meeting. With his own hand he kindled a blaze around which the representatives gathered and each lighted his pipe. He had a cabinet of six councillors of state, whose powers were only advisory. In the council he was only the moderator or presiding officer. He had no power to control, directly, military affairs, nor interfere with the internal policy of the several states of the league. There was really no coercive or compulsory power lodged anywhere, that could act upon a state or individual, excepting that of despotic public opinion. There was a third party in the government who exercised great influence. These were the matrons or elderly women, who had a right to sit in the councils and there exercise a negative or veto power on the subject of a declaration of war, or to propose, or demand, a cessation of hostilities. Theirs was a highly conservative power. They were pre-eminently the peace-makers of the league, for their personal happiness depended upon peaceful pursuits. They modestly refrained from making speeches in the legislature, but they furnished materials for masculine orators, and so it was in that notable confederacy of barbarians, formed long before their contact with Europeans, woman was man's co-worker in legislation—a thing unheard of in civilized nations. It was a government the nearest to a pure democracy, and yet highly aristocratic—a government of the best people—that the world has ever seen. It had all the essential elements of our form of government.

We have said that the soldiers of the league controlled the legislators. The

military leaders, like the Sachems, derived their authority from the people, who recognized and rewarded their ability as warriors. They held the relations to the civil heads of the nations, similar to that of Roman generals to emperors, whom they elevated to and deposed from office. The army was composed wholly of volunteers, for there was no power to conscript men. Every able-bodied man was bound, by custom, to do military duty, and he who shirked it incurred everlasting disgrace. The ranks of the army, therefore, were always full. The war-dance and the assemblages for amusement were the recruiting stations, for there the veteran warriors, painted and decorated, recounted their brave deeds in wild songs, as they danced around great fires singly or in a ring formed by clasped hands. These stirring war-songs inspired the young men with desires to emulate their example and win the honors of war.

There is no positive proof as to the time when the Iroquois "Confederacy" was formed. It was probably at the beginning of the fifteenth century, or about a hundred years before Columbus crossed the Atlantic Ocean. When Europeans found it, it was powerful and aggressive. Like old Iome, the state was constantly increasing in area and population, by conquests and annexations. Had the discovery of America by Europeans been deferred a century longer, no doubt that republic would have embraced the continent: for the *Five Nations*, as the league was called, had already extended their conquests from the great lakes on our northern border almost to the Gulf of Mexico.

CHEROKEES, CATAWBAS, UCHEES AND NATCHES.

The Cherokees inhabited the picturesque and fertile region in the upper part of Georgia, and its vicinity, where the mountain ranges that form the water-shed between the Atlantic Ocean and the Mississippi River melt into the lowlands, which border the Gulf of

Mexico. They were called the mountaineers of the South, and were the most formidable of all the foes of the conquering Iroquois. Their neighbors on the borders of the Yadkin and Catawba Rivers on both sides of the boundary line between North and South Carolina. The Iroquois made incursions into their country, but they never brought the Catawbas under the yoke of that confederacy.

The Uchees were only a remnant of a once powerful people. They were living in the beautiful land in Georgia, between the sites of Augusta and Milledgeville, along the Oconee and around the headwaters of the Ogeechee and Chattahoochee. They claim to be descendants of a people more ancient than those around them, and they had no traditions, as all the others had, of having migrated from another country.

The Natchezs, who occupied a territory east of the Mississippi, stretching north-eastward from the site of the City of Natchez, along the borders of the Pearl River to the headwaters of the Chicahaw River, claimed to be an older nation than the Uchees. Like the other Indians of the Gulf region, they were "fire and sun worshippers, and made sacrifices to the great luminary.

MOBILIANS OR FLORIDIANS.

The Mobilians, or Floridians, occupied a very large territory that bordered on the Gulf of Mexico. It stretched along the Atlantic coast from the mouth of the Cape Fear River to the extremity of the Florida peninsula and westward to the Mississippi River. They also held jurisdiction up that stream to the mouth of the Ohio River. Their domain included the States of Florida, Alabama and Mississippi, all of Georgia not occupied by the Cherokees and Uchees, and portions of South Carolina, Tennessee and Kentucky. The nation was divided into three confederacies, known respectively as the Creek, Choctaw and Chickasaw.

These people had the same general hue of skin, form of features and texture of hair as those of the more northern countries. They were either the descendants of the Central or South Americans, or their habits or life had been modified by contact with the half-civilized people of those countries. They were an athletic and vigorous race. The men were well proportioned, active and graceful in all their movements. The women were smaller, exquisitely formed, and some of them were very beautiful.

In the colder weather of winter, the common men wore a mantle made of a sort of cloth manufactured of the soft inner bark of trees, interwoven with hemp or a species of flax. This was thrown gracefully over the shoulder, leaving the right arm exposed. Around the loins was a very short tunic, extending half way down the thighs, or only a wrapper. The richer or nobler sort of men wore beautiful mantles, made of feathers of every hue, exquisitely arranged, or the skins of fur-bearing animals, with dressed deer skin tunics, wrought in colors, and moccasins and buskins of the same materials. The women of the better sort, at the cooler season, wore a garment of cloth or feathers, or furs, wrought like mantles of the men. It was wrapped more closely around the body at the waist and fell gracefully almost to the knee. The rest of the form was left bare excepting in the coldest weather, when they wore shore mantles that fell from the neck to the hips. Their heads were always uncovered, but the men wore a skull cap of cloth ornamented with beautiful sea-shells, the claws of beasts, or strings of pearls.

It is related that a queen, on the banks of the Savannah River, took from her neck a magnificent string of pearls and twined it around that of De Sota, the early Spanish discoverer of that region. Sometimes they wore pearl pendants in their ears. In summer, both sexes went without clothing, excepting a drapery of what is now known in that region as Spanish moss, gathered from the trees. This was

fastened at the waist and fell in graceful negligence to the thighs.

The Chiefs, and prophets, and other principal men, and their wives, painted their breasts and the front part of their bodies with stripes of white and red, and some practiced a kind of tattooing.

The houses of the Chiefs, spacious and airy, stood upon large mounds, natural or artificial, that were ascended by steps of wood or earth. These dwellings were built of timber, sometimes in the form of a great pavilion with a broad piazza around it, furnished with benches. They were covered with the leaves of the Palmetto, or thatched with straw, and sometimes they were roofed with reeds in the manner of tiles. Their winter houses were daubed inside and out with clay.

The weapons of the Floridians for hunting and war were strong bows and arrows, and javalins. Their arrows were made of fine dried cane, tipped with buck-horn and pointed with flint, hardwood or fish bones. They were carried in a quiver made of the skin of the fawn, cased at the bottom with the hide of the bear or the alligator, and slung by a thong of deer's skin so as to rest on the hips. The warriors all wore shields in battle, composed of wood, split cane, or the hide of the alligator and buffalo. On the left arm they wore a small shield of bark to protect it from the rebound of the bow-string. They also had short swords made of hard wood.

When a Chief was about to declare war, he sent a party at night toward the town of the enemy, to stick arrows in the ground at the cross paths or other conspicuous places near it. From these arrows waved long locks of human hair as tokens of scalping. Then he would assemble his painted warriors, and after some wild ceremonies, would turn reverentially toward the sun, with a wooden javelin in his hand, and invoking the aid of the great God of Fire, he would take a vessel of water, and sprinkle it around, saying; "Thus may you do with the blood of your enemies." Raising another vessel of water, he would pour it upon the

fire which had been kindled, and as it was extinguished he would say, "Thus may you destroy your enemies and bring home their scalps." When the battle was over, the victors cruelly mutilated the bodies of their captives. Carrying their dissevered limbs and their scalps upon spear-points, into the public square, they were there placed on poles, and the people celebrated the triumph by dancing around the trophies and singing wild songs of joy. The widows of those lost in battle gathered around the Chief with piteous cries, praying him to avenge the deaths of their loved ones, asking him for an allowance during their widowhood and permission to marry again as soon as the law would allow. Then they visited the burial places of their husbands, and cutting off their long tresses, strewed them over the graves. When their hair had grown to its usual length they were ready to marry again.

Hunting, fishing and the cultivation of the rich land were the chief employments of these people. The cotton plant was unknown to them, but hemp and flax were quite abundant. The women assisted the men in the fields, in the cultivation of corn, beans, peas, squashes, and pumpkins, which yielded enormous returns for the little labor bestowed. These productions were stored in granaries made of stone and earth and covered with mats, for winter use; also preserved meats. They obtained salt by evaporation, and the women were generally good cooks of the simple food. They made and used pottery for kitchen service, some of it skillfully constructed and quite beautiful. They were skillful artisans, as evidenced by their arms, houses, beautiful barges and canoes and ornaments. They had fortifications with moats or ditches; and walled towns; and some of their temples were grand, imposing and beautiful. Their roofs were steep and covered with mats of split cane, interwoven so compactly that they resembled the rush carpeting of the Moors. At the entrances to some of the temples, and in niches in the interior, were well-wrought wooden

statues, some of them of persons who were entombed in the sacred place. Between these were shields of various sizes, made of strongly woven reeds, adorned with pearls and colored tassels. Rich offerings of pearls and deer-skins, and the furs of animals were seen in these temples in great profusion, all dedicated to the Sun, the great God, whom they worshipped.

The religious system of these people was very simple. They regarded the Sun as the supreme Deity, and venerated the moon and certain brilliant stars. In all their invocations of blessings upon their chiefs or upon themselves, the Sun was appealed to, as we appeal to God. "May the Sun guard you," "May the Sun be with you," were the usual forms of invocation. At the beginning of March the men of a community selected the skin of the largest deer, with the head and legs attached, which they filled with a variety of fruit and grain. It was sewed up and appeared like the live creature in form. Its horns were garlanded with fruits and early spring flowers. Then the effigy was carried in a procession of all the inhabitants to a plain, and placed on a high post. There at the moment when the sun appeared upon the eastern horizon the people all fell upon their knees, with their faces toward the rising luminary, and implored the God of day to grant them, the ensuing season, an abundance of fruit and grain as good as those which they then offered.

The funeral ceremonies of these people, especially on the death of a chief or prophet, were very peculiar. The body underwent a sort of embalming, when it was placed in the ground in a sitting posture by the nearest relatives of the deceased. Then food and money were placed by its side, and a conical mound of earth was piled over it, at the foot of which was made a paling of arrows stuck in the ground. Around the tomb the people gathered in great numbers, some standing, some sitting, and all howling. This ceremony continued three days and nights, after which, for a long time, chosen

women visited the tomb three times a day, morning, noon and night. The chief, whilst he was alive, was held in the greatest veneration, for like the Assyrian Kings, he was both monarch and pontiff—the chief magistrate and the high priest. A cruel sacrifice was made to him of every first-born male child, a custom learned from the Central Americans. The child was brought by a dancing-girl and placed upon the block, and the young mother, weeping in agony, was compelled to stand near it, to make the offering. A prophet dashed out its brains, and then a group of girls danced around the altar of sacrifice, singing songs.

Such is an outline picture of the people with whom the Spaniards first came in contact on the continent after the discoveries by Columbus and his contemporaries. These, with the Iroquois Confederacy, are the two notable exceptions spoken of, to the general character and habits of the dusky nations who then inhabited North America.

DAKOTAHS OR SIOUX.

Under the general title of Dakotahs or Sioux, have been grouped a vast number of tribes west of the Mississippi River and the great lakes, with whom the early French explorers came in contact. They spoke, apparently dialects of the same language, and were regarded as one nation. They inhabited the vast domain stretching northward from the Arkansas River to the western tributaries of Lake Winnipeg, and westward along that line to the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains. These have been arranged in four classes, namely, the Winnebagoes, the Assiniboinos or Sioux proper, the Minnetaries and the southern Sioux.

Such was the general distribution of the Indians when European settlements were begun among them. They were not stationary residents of a fixed domain; nor, with the exception of the Iroquois Confederacy, was there the semblance of a national government amongst them. They had wandered

for centuries, and some of them had evidently traversed the whole continent. Yet they were not a nomadic race, or a people seeking pasture for cattle, living in tents, and having no fixed home for a month at a time. Neither were they agriculturists, steadily cultivating the soil. The horse, cow, sheep and swine were unknown to them. They had never tamed the buffalo nor the stately elk for labor or food; nor had they sheared a fleece from the great-horned Rocky Mountain sheep. Like primitive man, the Indian was a hunter and fisher, and depended for his sustenance chiefly upon the chase and the hook.

AZTECS OR MEXICANS.

At the beginning of the sixteenth century, just before the arrival of the Spaniards, the Aztec dominion reached across the continent, from the Atlantic to the Pacific; and under the bold and bloody Ahuitzotl, its arms had been carried far over its original permanent territory, into the farthest corners of Guatemala and Nicaragua. This extent of empire, however limited in comparison with that of other states, is truly wonderful, considering it as the acquisition of a people whose whole population and resources had so recently been comprised within the walls of their own petty city; and considering, moreover, that the conquered territory was thickly settled by various races, bred to arms like the Mexicans, and little inferior to them in social organization. The history of the Aztecs suggests some strong points of resemblance to that of ancient Romans, not only in their military successes, but in the policy which led to them.

According to traditional legends a conspicuous people known as the Toltecs, entered the territory of Anahuac; probably before the close of the seventh century; from a northerly direction, but from what region is uncertain. They were well instructed in agriculture, and many of the most useful mechanic arts; were nice workers of metals; invented the complex arrange-

ment of time adopted by the Aztecs; and, in short, were the true fountains of civilization which distinguished this part of the continent in later times. They established their capital at Tula, north of the Mexican Valley, and the remains of extensive buildings were to be discerned there at the time of the conquest. The noble ruins of religious and other edifices, still to be seen in various parts of Mexico, are referred to this people, whose name, Toltec, has passed into a synonym for architecture.

After a period of four centuries, the Toltecs, who had extended their sway over the remotest borders of Anahuac, having been greatly reduced, it is said, by famine pestilence, and unsuccessful wars, disappeared from the land as silently and mysteriously as they had entered it. A few of them still lingered behind, but much the greater number, probably, spread over the region of Central America and the neighboring isles.

After a lapse of another hundred years, a numerous and rude tribe, called the Chichimecs, entered the deserted country from the regions of the far northwest. They were speedily followed by other races, of higher civilization, perhaps of the same family as the Toltecs, whose language they appear to have spoken. The most noted of these were the Aztecs or Mexicans, and the Acolhuans. The latter, better known in later times by the name of Tezcucans, from their capital, Tezcuco, on the eastern border of the Mexican lake, were peculiarly fitted, by their comparatively mild religion and manners, for receiving the tincture of civilization which could be derived from the few Toltecs that still remained in the country.

The Mexicans, with whom our story is principally concerned, came, also, as we have seen, from the remote regions of the north, the populous hive of nations in the New World, as it had been in the Old. They arrived on the borders of Anahuac toward the beginning of the thirteenth century, sometime after the occupation of the land by the Kindred races. For a long time they

did not establish themselves in any permanent residence; but continued shifting their quarters to different parts of the Mexican Valley, enduring all the casualties and hardships of a migratory life. After a series of wanderings and adventures, they at length halted on the southwestern borders of the principal lake, in the year 1325. They there beheld, perched on the stem of a prickly pear, which shot out from a crevice of a rock that was washed by the waves, a royal eagle of extraordinary size and beauty, with a serpent in his talons and his broad wings opened to the rising sun. They hailed the auspicious omen, announced by the oracles, as indicating the site of their future city, and laid its foundations by sinking piles into the shallows; for the low marshes were half buried under water. On these they erected their light fabrics of reeds and rushes; and sought a precarious subsistence from fishing, and from the wild fowl which frequents the waters, as well as from the cultivation of such simple vegetables as they could raise on their floating gardens. The place was called Tenochtitlan, in token of its miraculous origin, though only known to Europeans by its other name of Mexico, derived from their war-god Mexitli. The legend of its foundation is still further commemorated by the devices of the eagle and the cactus, which form the arms of the modern Mexican Republic. Such was the humble beginnings of the Venice of the Western World.

Notwithstanding their forlorn condition and domestic feuds, they gradually increased in numbers and established a reputation for courage as well as cruelty in war; which made their name terrible throughout the valley. In the early part of the fifteenth century, nearly a hundred years from the foundations of the city, an event took place which created an entire revolution in the circumstances, and, to some extent, in the character of the Aztecs. This was the subversion of the Tezcucan monarchy by the Tepanecs. When the oppressive conduct of the victors had

at length aroused a spirit of resistance, its prince, Nezahualcoyotl, succeeded, after incredible perils and escapes, in mustering such a force, as, with the aid of the Mexicans, placed him on a level with his enemies. In two successive battles, these were defeated with great slaughter, their chief slain, and their territory, by one of those reverses which characterize the wars of petty states, passed into the hands of the conquerors. It was awarded to Mexico in return for its important services.

Then was formed that remarkable league which has no parallel in history. It was agreed between the states of Mexico, Tezcuco, and the neighboring little kingdom of Tlacopan, that they should mutually support each other in their wars, offensive and defensive, and that in the distribution of the spoil, one-fifth should be assigned to Tlacopan, and the remainder to be divided, in what proportion is uncertain, between the other powers.

The Aztecs receiving the greater share, as evidenced by the territory subsequently appropriated, as they were in a more prosperous condition than their allies. The allies for some time found sufficient occupation for their arms in their own valley; but they soon overleaped its rocky ramparts, and by the middle of the fifteenth century, under the first Montezuma, had spread down the sides of the table-land to the borders of the Gulf of Mexico.

Tenochtitlan, the Aztec capital, gave evidence of the public prosperity. Its old feuds were healed, the citizens who had seceded were again brought under a common government with the main body, and the quarter they occupied was permanently connected with the parent city; the dimensions of which, covering the same ground, were much larger than the modern capitol of Mexico.

The form of government was nearly an absolute monarchy, though elective. Four of the principle nobles, who had been chosen by their own body in the preceding reign, filled the office of electors. The sovereign was selected from the brothers of the deceased

prince, or, in default of them, from his nephews.

Thus the election was always restricted to the same family. The candidate preferred must have distinguished himself in war, though, as in the case of the last Montezuma, he was a member of the priesthood. The candidates received an education which fitted them for the royal dignity, the age, at which they were chosen, not only prevented a minor from becoming monarch, but showed their qualifications for the office. The result of this was favorable, as shown by a succession of monarchs well qualified to rule over a warlike and ambitious people.

The Aztec princes had spacious palaces provided, with halls for the different councils, who aided the monarch in the transaction of business. The chief of these was sort of privy council, composed in part, probably, of the four electors chosen by the nobles after the accession, whose places, when made vacant by death, were immediately supplied as before. It was the business of this body, so far as can be gathered from the very loose accounts given of it, to advise the King, in respect to the government of the provinces, the administration of the revenues, and, indeed, on all great matters of public interest. It is certain, there was a distinct class of nobles, with large landed possessions, who held the most important offices near the person of the prince.

The legislative power resided wholly with the monarch. This feature of despotism, however, was, in some measure, counteracted by the constitution of the judicial tribunals.

Over each of the principal cities, with its dependent territories, was placed a supreme judge, appointed by the crown, with original and final jurisdiction in both civil and criminal cases. There was no appeal from his sentence to any other tribunal, nor even to the King. He held his office during life; and any one who usurped his ensigns was punished with death.

Below this magistrate was a court, established in each province, and con-

sisting of three members. It held concurrent jurisdiction with the supreme judges in civil suits, but, in criminal, an appeal lay to his tribunal. Besides these courts there was a body of inferior magistrates, distributed through the country, chosen by the people themselves in their several districts. Their authority was limited to smaller causes, while the more important were carried up to the higher courts. There was still another class of subordinate officers, appointed also by the people, each of which was to watch over the conduct of a certain number of families, and report any disorder or breach of the laws to the higher authorities. Such are the vague and imperfect notices that can be gleaned, respecting the Aztec tribunals.

The judges of the higher tribunals were maintained from the produce of a part of the crown lands, reserved for this purpose. They, as well as the supreme judge, held their offices for life. The proceedings in the courts were conducted with decency and order.

The laws of the Aztecs were registered, and exhibited to them in their paintings. Much the larger part of them, as in every nation imperfectly civilized, relates rather to security of persons, than of property. The great crimes against society were all punished by death.

Their military code bore the same stern features as their other laws. Disobedience of orders was punished with death. It was death, also, for a soldier to leave his colors, to attack the enemy before the signal was given, or to plunder another's booty or prisoners. Hospitals were established in the principal cities, for the cure of the sick, and the permanent refuge of the disabled soldier.

The Aztec recognized the existence of a Supreme Creator and Lord of the Universe. But they also believed in a number of Gods, presiding over the elements, the seasons, and the various occupations of man. At the head of all stood the terrible Huitzilopochtli, the Mexican God of war. This was the

patron deity of the nation. His temples were the most stately and august of public buildings, and his alters reeked with the blood of human sacrifices, which had a distasteful influence on the character of the people.

A far more interesting personage was Quetzalcoatl, God of the air, who instructed them in the arts of agriculture and government and in the use of metals and who they believed would again come among them. At the city of Cholula is a massive ruin of a temple that was dedicated to his worship. He was said to have been tall in stature, had a white skin, long dark hair, and a flowing beard.

The wicked of these people were supposed to have gone to a place of everlasting darkness; the good, and those that fell in battle, or were sacrificed, passed at once into the presence of the Sun, whom they accompanied in his bright progress through the heavens; and, after some years, their spirits revealed amidst the rich blossoms and odors of the gardens of paradise. Such was the heaven of the Aztecs.

The Mexican temples, Teocallis, "houses of God," as they were called, were very numerous. They were solid masses of earth, cased with brick or stone, and in their form, somewhat resembled the pyramidal structures of ancient Egypt. The bases of many of them were more than a hundred feet square, and they towered to a still greater height. They were distributed into four or five stories, each of smaller dimensions than that below. The ascent was by a flight of steps, at an angle of the pyramid, on the outside. This led to a sort of terrace, or gallery, at the base of the second story, which passed quite round the building to another flight of stairs, commencing also at the same angle as the preceding and directly over it, and leading to a similar terrace, so that one had to make the circuit of the temple several times before reaching the summit. In some instances the stairway led directly up the centre of the western face of the building. The top was a broad area, on which were erected one or two towers,

forty or fifty feet high, the sanctuaries in which stood the sacred images of the presiding deities. Before these towers stood the dreadful stone of sacrifice, and two lofty altars, on which fires were kept, as inextinguishable as those in the temple of Vesta. There was said to have been six hundred of these altars, on smaller buildings within the inclosure of the great temple of Mexico, which, with those on sacred edifices in other parts of the city, shed a brilliant illumination over its streets, through the darkest night.

Human sacrifices were adopted by the Aztecs early in the fourteenth century, rare at first, they became more frequent with the wider extent of their empire; till, at length, almost every festival was closed with this cruel abomination. One of the most detestable features of the Aztec religion was its cannibalism, they ate the bodies of those sacrificed, not on account of brutish appetite, but in obedience to their religion.

One important duty of the priesthood was that of education, to which certain buildings were appropriated within the inclosure of the principal temple. Here the youth of both sexes were placed at a very tender age. The girls to priestesses. The boys were taught the religion of the Aztecs, and in the higher schools the mysteries of hieroglyphics, the principles of government, and such natural sciences as were known to the priesthood. Great attention was paid to the moral discipline of both sexes, and offenses were punished with great vigor. Terror, not love was the spring of education with the Aztecs.

All the people, even those inhabiting cities, except the soldiers and great nobles, cultivated the soil. They were also well acquainted with the mineral treasures of their Kingdom, but they had no knowledge of the use of iron. They found a substitute in an alloy of tin and copper, and from this made their tools. They were very skillful in fashioning gold and silver into ornaments, vases and vessels of all sorts. The art of sculpturing had also attained

great advancement among them. They were also well developed in the mechanical arts, such as weaving, dyeing, and made featherwork fabrics of beautiful designs.

Their traffic was carried on mostly by barter, but they had a currency of different values. This consisted of transparent quills of gold dust, bits of tin cut in the form of a "T," and bags of cacao of different weights.

In their domestic life, they were tender and refined, cleanly to a fault. They displayed all the sympathy of a cultivated nature, consoling their friends in affliction, and congratulating them on having good fortune.

NORWEGIAN DISCOVERIES.

Over nine hundred years ago, a famous Norwegian sailor named Eric—called "Eric the Red" because he had red hair and florid complexion—settled in Iceland, the northern shores of which touched the Arctic Circle. Whilst he was on a voyage westward from that far north country, he discovered Greenland and made it his home. His son Lief, an ambitious young man, wished to become a discoverer, like his father. He bought a ship—one of those queer little Norwegian vessels which were moved sometimes by sails and sometimes by oars. They were used by those old Sea Kings, as they were called, of Northern Europe, who spread terror by their piracies over the British Islands and the coasts of Western Europe, from the Rhine to the Straits of Gibraltar, more than a thousand years ago.

Lief's ship was stout and tight. She had made many voyages safely. He furnished her with twenty-five strong men, and invited his father to go with him as the commander. Eric thought himself too old for such an undertaking. Lief and his companions sailed southwesterly. It was in the early summer of the year 1002. They were fighting the storms and waves of the North Atlantic Ocean, between Greenland and Labrador, and were sometimes chilled by slow-drifting icebergs.

At length they saw land. It was flat and stony near the shore, with high snow-capped mountains, a little back from the sea. They did not land, but, sailing southward, they soon came to another country, flat, and covered thickly with woods. It had a broad beach of white sand sloping gently to the sea. The adventurers anchored their little ship, went on shore, and fed themselves on sweet berries. A few hours later they sailed away southward.

These bold seamen soon came in sight of another land. It was hilly—gently so—and mostly covered with trees. Its northerly shores were sheltered by an island. They found there an abundance of small fruits, delicious to the taste. No traces of human beings were found, excepting some burnt wood and the bones of large fishes; and no sounds were heard but the songs of birds and the chirping of squirrels. Charmed by the soft climate, they sought a harbor, and found one at the mouth of a river, where the vessel was swept by the tide into a bay. The waters were filled with the finest salmon, and wild deer abounded in the woods. The days and nights were nearly equal in length, at first. As they remained all winter, they noticed that when the days were shortest, the sun rose at half-past seven o'clock and set at half-past four o'clock.

A young German of Lief's company, who was Eric's servant, was missing one day. They searched for him in all directions. He had wandered deep into the forest, and when they found him he was full of joy, because he had discovered grapes, delicious and abundant, such as grew in his own country. So Lief named the country Vineland. He and his company built huts and wintered there, and in the spring they returned to Greenland. Eric had lately died, and Lief, his eldest son, came into the possession of his estate and patriarchal office. Eric's family were Christians, but Eric died a pagan.

Thorwald, Lief's younger brother, bought the good ship and, with thirty companions, sailed for Vineland. They passed the winter there, occupying the

huts built by Lief and his companions, and subsisting, as they had done, on fish. In the spring, Thorwald and a part of his company explored the neighboring coasts, finding many sandy islands, on which there was no traces of wild beasts and few of human beings. The summer was spent in these explorations, and the next was passed at their old quarters in Vineland. Other explorations were made the following summer, by the whole company. In the early autumn they entered a large inlet. There were high lands on each side, thickly wooded. "Here," said Thorwald, "is a goodly place; here I will make my abode." They found there some natives—dusky people, of small stature, like the Esquimaux of Greenland. They were in canoes, and were timid and harmless. The Northmen caught them and cruelly put them to death, excepting one, who escaped to the hills and aroused his countrymen. The angry savages attacked Thorwald and his company, and Thorwald was killed, but his companions escaped uninjured. Thorwald's body was buried on the promontory where he intended to settle. The survivors passed the winter in Vineland, in mortal fear of the enraged savages, and in the spring they returned to Greenland.

Thorstein, Eric's third son, on hearing of the death of his brother, sailed for Vineland, with twenty-five companions and his young wife, Gudvida. Adverse winds drove the vessel into the desolate shores of Greenland. A contagious disease broke out among them and Thorstein and the greater number of his companions perished. The young wife then returned home with the body of her husband.

During the next summer, a rich Norwegian named Thorfin, married Gudvida, and, accompanied by his young wife, and five other young women and their husbands, and other men, sailed for Vineland, to plant a colony there. They landed near the spot where Lief had passed the winter.

Thorfin remained with the colony in Vineland about three years, when he

and Gudvida, with a part of the company, returned to Norway with specimens of fruits and furs, which they had gathered in the new country.

After making several voyages Thorfin settled in Iceland, where he died. Gudvida, then went on a pilgrimage to Rome, where she told the story of the adventurers in the ears of Pope Benedict.

Those of Thorfin's colony who remained in Vineland, were joined by two brothers, named Helgi and Fionbogi, with about thirty followers. Freydisa, the daughter of Eric the Red, obtained a willing permission to go with them, and share in the profits of the voyage. She was an artful and fiery-tempered woman and a fury and firebrand amongst the colonists. Where peace had reigned she enthroned discord. Quarrels ensued which ended in a fight and the death of thirty persons. Then Freydisa, finding her own life in peril, returned to Greenland, where she died.

From the chronicles of Iceland, it reveals the fact that Norwegians discovered America almost five hundred years before Columbus sailed westward from Spain, in search of India. The stony land was doubtless Labrador. The flat, wooded land, must have been Newfoundland; and the time given for the rising and setting of the sun and the winter solstice—the shortest day about Christmas time—indicates some point on the New England coast, between Boston harbor and Narragansett bay, as the spot where the German lad discovered the grapes, and Lief named the country Vineland.

Where Thorwald was buried, or where Thorfin and Gudvida landed and lived nobody knows. All positive traces of these colonies in America are lost.

From that time, for more than four hundred years, America lay hidden from the knowledge of Europeans. There are some traditions that seem to have facts for their substance, that tell us of other voyages to this Western World, during that period. The most reasonable of these stories, is that of

Prince Madoc of Wales, said to have been drawn from the chronicles of that country. It is believed by some historical students of Madoc, who was a son of Owen Gwynneth, disgusted with the domestic contentions about the rightful successor to his father, went on a voyage of discovery, with ships well manned, in the reign of King Henry the Second, of England; that he went westward from Ireland and found a most fruitful country, in the year 1170; that he returned home, and with a squadron of ten ships sailed for the same lands with a colony of men, women and children, to settle there, and that he was never heard of afterwards. It has been asserted by more than one traveler in this country, that light-colored Indians have been met by them, who had many Welsh words in their language. Humboldt refers to this tradition; and until the translation of the Icelandic Chronicles, the Chronicles of Wales claimed for Madoc the honor of being the discoverer of America.

During the centuries whilst America again lay hidden from Europe, great changes had taken place among the nations of the Eastern Hemisphere, and we shall briefly relate the conditions in Europe toward the close of the fifteenth century.

The Northmen, or Normans, had taken possession of some of the fairest regions of France (Normandy), and had invaded, conquered, and refined England. The Germans had succeeded the empire of the Franks, in the mastery of Europe, and with their advanced ideas.

The crusaders had unbarred the gates of the East, and let in a flood of light from that source of science and philosophy, and had broken up the stagnation of European society. The feudal system—a system in which lands are held by a few nobles who farm them out as a privilege secured by military service—had given way to an established political system in the form of monarchies and powerful republics. Commercial cities were gathering and distributing the products of industry and flecking the seas with white sails,

proving that the arts of peace are far more productive of happiness than the pursuit of war.

Trade had linked various peoples in bonds of mutual interests and sympathy. And Europe, with the birth of the printing-press at that time, was prepared to enter upon that new and bright era of scientific investigation and maritime discovery, which speedily followed.

Its most wonderful activity was seen in the Adriatic and in the Mediterranean Seas. For the control of this commerce, Venice on the Adriatic and Genoa on the Mediterranean were powerful and zealous rivals. The ancient cities of Venice and Genoa had grown rich by the trade with the East. Great caravans brought silks and spices and other luxuries thence overland to Mediterranean ports, which were carried to the Italian cities in ships and again sent overland to the cities of the North. This slow and expensive method of transportation, might have long continued, had not the conquering Turks seized on Constantinople and cut off every avenue of trade southward from Christian traffic. Then began men to look for an all water route to India and China and Japan, of whose marvelous riches Marco Polo and other travelers had written, with a wealth of adjectives that stirred the imagination and incited the cupidity of Christendom.

The leader of this movement was Portugal, under Henry, son of John the First. While with his father on an expedition into Africa, he received much information from the Moors concerning the coast of Guinea and other parts that were then unknown to Europeans. He believed that important discoveries might be made by navigating along the western coast of that continent, and on his return home the idea absorbed his whole attention. Being a studious and profound mathematician, he had become master of all the astronomy then known to the Spaniards. He drew around him men of science and learning connected with every branch of the maritime art, and with these learned men, he was convinced that from an-

cient chronicles and fair induction, that Africa was circumnavigable—that India might be reached by going around the southern shores of that continent. Prince Henry firmly adhered to his belief in the face of the threats of the priests and the sneers of the learned professors. Wild tales were believed of dreadful reefs and stormy headlands stretching far out to sea, and of a fiery climate at the equator which no living thing, not even whales in the depth of the ocean could pass because of the great heat. It was believed that the waves rolled in boiling water upon the fiery sands of the coasts, and that whoever should pass beyond Cape Bajador would never return. Against every species of opposition Prince Henry persevered. His navigators scattered all these fallacies and tales by doubling Cape Bajador and sailing into the tropics.

With the revival of learning which the crusades had been chiefly instrumental in producing, came into Europe a knowledge of the theories and a demonstration of the Arabian astronomers, concerning the globular form of the earth. Intelligent mariners and others had become impressed that it was globular, whilst the clergy vehemently opposed it.

Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, being firmly convinced of this theory, believed the quickest passage to India would be made by sailing westward. This we shall take up in the

STORY OF COLUMBUS.

Christopher Columbus, or Colombo, as the name is written in Italian, was born in the city of Genoa, about the year 1435. He was the son of a wool comber. He was the oldest of four children, having two brothers, Bartholomew and Giacomo, or James (written Diego in Spanish), and one sister, of whom nothing is known. At a very early age Columbus evinced a decided inclination for the sea; his education therefore was mainly directed to fit him for maritime life, but was as general as the narrow means of his

father would permit. For a short time, also, he was sent to the university of Pavia. He then returned to Genoa, and, from his own account, he entered upon a nautical life when but fourteen years of age.

His first voyages were made in the Mediterranean Sea with a distant relative named Colombo, when piracy was almost legalized. During many years we have but a shadowy trace of Columbus, and from writings of his son, Fernando, we next hear of him in Lisbon, about the year 1470. He was at that time in the full vigor of manhood, and of an engaging presence. He was tall, well-formed and muscular, and of an elevated and dignified demeanor. His visage was long and neither full nor meagre; his complexion fair and freckled and inclined to ruddy; his nose aquiline; his cheek bones were rather high, his eyes light gray and apt to enkindle; his whole countenance had an air of authority. His hair, in his youthful days, was of a light color; but care and trouble soon turned it gray, and at thirty years of age was quite white. He was moderate and simple in diet and apparel, eloquent in discourse, engaging and affable with strangers, and his amiableness and suavity in domestic life strongly attached his household to his person. His temper was naturally irritable; but he subdued it by the magnanimity of his spirit, comporting himself with a courteous and gentle gravity, and never indulging in any intemperance of language. Throughout his life he was noted for his strict attention to the offices of religion, observing rigorously the fasts and ceremonies of the church; nor did his piety consist in mere forms, but partook of the lofty and solemn enthusiasm with which his whole character was strongly tinged. While attending religious service, he became acquainted with Dona Felipa, daughter of Bartholomew Monis de Perestrello, deceased, who had been one of the most distinguished navigators under Prince Henry of Portugal and had colonized and governed the island of Porto Santo. They

were soon married and it appears to have been of pure affection as the lady was without fortune.

Through the mother of the bride, he became informed of all the voyages and expeditions of her late husband, she brought him all his papers, charts, journals and memorandums. In this way he became acquainted with the routes of the Portuguese, their plans and conceptions; and having become naturalized in Portugal, he sailed occasionally in the expeditions to the coast of Guinea. He was compelled to use strict economy, and when on shore supported himself and family by making maps and charts.

He resided for some time at the recently discovered island of Porto Santo, where his wife had inherited some property, and during his residence there she bore him a son, whom he named Diego. This residence brought him on the very frontier of discovery. His wife's sister was married to Pedro Correo, a navigator of note, who had at one time been governor of Porto Santo. Being frequently together, their intercourse was turned upon the long sought for route to India; and the possibility of some unknown lands existing in the west.

In their island residence, surrounded by the stir and bustle of discovery, communing with persons who had risen by it to fortune and honor, the ardent mind of Columbus kindled up to enthusiasm in the cause. One of the strongest symptoms of the excited state of the popular mind at this eventful era was the prevalence of rumors respecting unknown islands casually seen in the ocean. Columbus, however, considered all these appearances of land as mere illusions. He made himself acquainted with all that had been written by the ancients, or discovered by the moderns, relation to geography. His own voyages enabled him to correct many of their errors, and appreciate many of their theories. His genius having thus taken its decided bent, his grand project of discovery was wrought out by the strong workings of his vigorous mind.

He sat down as a fundamental principle that the earth was a terraqueous sphere or globe, which might be travelled round from east to west, and that men stood foot to foot when on opposite points. The circumference on the equator, Columbus divided into twenty four hours of fifteen degrees each, making three hundred and sixty degrees. Of these he imagined that fifteen hours had been known to the ancients, extending from the Canary Islands to the city of Thinae, in Asia, a place set down as the eastern limits of the known world. The Portuguese had advanced the western frontier one hour more by the discovery of the Azores and the Cape de Verde Islands. There remained, then, according to Columbus's estimate, eight hours, or one-third of the circumference of the earth, unknown and unexplored. Granting this, it was manifest that by pursuing a direct course from east to west, a navigator would arrive at the extremity of Asia, and discover any intervening land.

According to the stories of Marco Polo and John Mandeville, these travelers had visited the remote parts of Asia, and their accounts of the extent of that continent to the eastward had a great effect in convincing Columbus that a voyage to the west, of no long duration, would bring him to its shores, or to the extensive and wealthy islands which lie adjacent. He was also influenced by the tales of veteran mariners who had found drift-wood from the west, carved by other tools than iron, and of reeds which Columbus thought he recognized as the immense reeds said to grow in India. When Columbus had formed his theory, it became fixed in his mind with singular firmness, and influenced his entire character and conduct. He never spoke in doubt or hesitation, but with as much certainty as if his eyes had beheld the promised land. A deep religious sentiment mingled with his meditations, and he looked upon himself as standing in the hand of heaven, chosen from among men for the accomplishment of its high purpose.

It is impossible to determine the precise time when Columbus first conceived the design of seeking a western route to India. It is certain, however, that he meditated it as early as the year 1474. He was at this time too poor to fit out the armament necessary for so important an expedition. Indeed, it was an enterprise only to be undertaken in the employ of some sovereign state, which could assume dominion over the territories he might discover and reward him with dignities and privileges commensurate to his services. It is said that he endeavored to engage his own country, Genoa, in the undertaking, but without success. His residence in Portugal placed him at hand to solicit the patronage of that power, but Alphonso, who was then on the throne, was too much engrossed in the latter part of his reign, with a war with Spain, to engage in peaceful enterprises of an expensive nature.

At this juncture, in 1481, a monarch ascended the throne of Portugal, of different ambition from Alphonso. John Second, then in the twenty-fifth year of his age, had imbibed the passion for discovery from his grand-uncle, Prince Henry, and with his reign all its activity revived. The magnificent idea he had formed of the remote parts of the East made him extremely anxious that the splendid project of Prince Henry should be realized, and the Portuguese flag penetrate to the Indian seas.

It was at this time that Columbus made the first attempt to procure royal patronage for his enterprise. Encouraged by the anxiety evinced by King John the Second to accomplish a passage by sea to India, Columbus obtained an audience of that monarch, and proposed that in case the King would furnish him with ships and men, to take a shorter and more direct route than that along the coast of Africa. His plan was to strike directly to the west, across the Atlantic. The King referred the matter to a learned junta, charged with all matters relating to maritime discovery. This scientific body treated the subject as extravagant and visionary. King John still mani-

festing an inclination for the enterprise, it was suggested to him that Columbus might be kept in suspense while a vessel secretly dispatched in the direction he should point out might ascertain whether there was any foundation for his theory. Having obtained detailed information from Columbus, a caravel was dispatched, which stood westward for several days, until the weather became stormy, the pilots seeing nothing but a waste of wild tumbling waters still extending before them, lost all courage and put back, ridiculing the project of Columbus.

This unworthy act of King John, aroused the indignation of Columbus, and he refused to renew the negotiations. The death of his wife, which occurred some time previously, dissolved what ties he had with Portugal, and he determined to look elsewhere for patronage. Before his departure, he engaged his brother Bartholomew to carry proposals to the King of England.

We next hear from Columbus in the south of Spain, in 1485, seeking his fortune among the nobles. He met with indifferent success, and was about to leave Spain to seek the aid of France, when the Duke of Medina Celi, fearing the loss to Spain by the success of such a splendid enterprise, by another power, wrote to Queen Isabella recommending Columbus and his project. This brought a favorable reply and Columbus accordingly set out for the Spanish court.

This was one of the most brilliant periods of the Spanish monarchy. The union of Arragon and Castile, by the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella, which consolidated the Christian power, in opposition to the domination of the Moors. After arriving at the court at Cordova, he found the monarchs in active preparation for the war, with the Moors, and for over a year, was unable to obtain an audience. He was finally ordered by Ferdinand, to present his project before the council of Salamanca, the leading university of Spain. His theories were met with no approval, and he experienced nothing but procrastination and neglect.

In the spring of 1489 the-adjoined investigation appeared to be on the eve of taking place. Columbus was summoned to attend a conference of learned men, to be held in the city of Seville; but as usual the appointed conference was postponed, being interrupted by the opening of a campaign. Columbus waited through the summer of 1490, and the subsequent winter, when he pressed for a reply. The sovereigns answered, that on account of the war and its expenses, the project could not be considered until its close. Renouncing all further confidence in vague promises, he turned his back on Seville.

About half a league from the little seaport of Palos, in Andalusia, there stood an ancient convent, dedicated to Santa Maria de Rabida. One day a stranger on foot, in humble guise but of a distinguished air, accompanied by a small boy, stopped at the gate of the convent, and asked of the porter a little bread and water for the child. Juan Perz de Marchena, the prior of the convent, happening to pass by, was struck by the appearance of the stranger, and observing from his accent that he was a foreigner, entered into conversation with him, and soon learned his story. That stranger was Columbus. He was on his way to the neighboring town of Huelva, to seek his brother-in-law.

The prior was a man of extensive geographical and nautical knowledge, he was greatly interested by the conversation of Columbus. When he found, however, that the voyager was on the point of abandoning Spain to seek patronage in the court of France, and that so important an enterprise was about to be lost forever to the country, the good friar took alarm. He detained Columbus as his guest, and sent for Garcia Fernandez; a physician, resident in Palos; a scientific friend, to converse with him. Several conferences took place at the convent, at which several of the veteran mariners of Palos were present. Among these was Martin Alonzo Pinzon, the head of a family of wealthy and experienced navigators of the place, celebrated for

their adventurous expeditions. Facts were related by some of these navigators in support of the theory of Columbus. In a word, his project was treated with a deference in the quiet cloisters of the convent, and among the seamen which had been sought in vain among the sages and philosophers of the court. Martin Alonzo Pinzon was so impressed that he offered to engage in it with purse and person, and to bear the expenses of Columbus in renewed application to the court. Friar Juan Perez had once been confessor to the Queen, he proposed to write to her immediately on the subject, and entreated Columbus to delay his journey until an answer could be received. Columbus being persuaded, a letter was written to the Queen, and she wrote in reply to Juan Perez, thanking him for his timely services, and requesting that he would repair immediately to the court. No sooner did the friar receive it, than he departed privately, before midnight, for the court.

He pleaded the cause of Columbus, and the Queen being more susceptible and sanguine than the King, was moved by the representations of the friar and requested that Columbus should again be sent to her, and forwarded to him his traveling expenses.

When Columbus arrived at the court, he experienced a favorable reception, the moment had now arrived, when the monarchs stood pledged to attend to his proposals. The war with the Moors was at an end, Spain was delivered from its intruders, and its sovereigns might securely turn their views to foreign enterprises. They kept their word with Columbus.

At the very outset of their negotiation, however, unexpected difficulties arose. So fully imbued was Columbus with the grandeur of his enterprise, that he would listen to none but princely conditions. His principal stipulation was, that he should be invested with the titles and privileges of admiral and viceroy over the countries he should discover. With one-tenth of all gains, either by trade or conquests, or to furnish one-eighth of the cost, on

condition of enjoying one-eighth of the profits. More moderate conditions were offered to Columbus, and such as appeared highly honorable and advantageous. It was all in vain; he would not cede one point of his demands, and the negotiation was broken off.

Taking leave of his friends, therefore, he left Santa Fe on his way to Cordova, in the beginning of February, 1492, whence he intended to depart immediately for France.

When the few friends who were zealous believers in the theory of Columbus saw him really on the point of abandoning the country, they were filled with distress, considering his departure an irreparable loss to the nation. Among the number was the receiver of the ecclesiastical revenues in Arragon, he entreated her majesty not to be misled by the assertions of learned men, that the project was visionary. He vindicated the Judgment of Columbus. Neither would even failure reflect disgrace upon the crown. He stated the liberal offer of Columbus to bear an eighth of the expense, and informed her that all that was necessary for the expedition was but two vessels and about three thousand crowns. There was still a moment's hesitation, the King looked coldly on the affair. With an enthusiasm worthy of herself and the cause, Isabella exclaimed, "I undertake the enterprise for my crown of Castile, and will pledge my jewels to raise the necessary funds." This was the proudest moment in the life of Isabella; it stamped her renown forever as the patroness of the discovery of the New World. But her majesty was assured that there would be no need of pledging her jewels, as the necessary funds would be advanced.

Columbus was pursuing his lonely journey, when he was overtaken by a courier from the Queen, who summoned him to return to Santa Fe. On hearing of the sudden zeal excited in the mind of the Queen, and the positive promise she had given to undertake it, he no longer felt a doubt, but hastened back, confiding in the noble probity of that princess.

An immediate audience was granted. He was then fifty-six years of age; and the Queen forty. She possessed more genius and grandeur of soul than her husband; and could far better than he comprehend the theory of Columbus, and estimate its mighty results, should he achieve it. And when, with a tongue that seemed to be touched with inspiration, he told the Queen of his belief that he was ordained of God for its achievement, and that he intended to use the profits of his enterprise on efforts for the recovery of the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem, the beautiful Queen invoked the blessings of Almighty God upon him.

Isabella assented to all of the demands of Columbus, and urged him to depart on his great mission as speedily as possible. Ferdinand acquiesced in the arrangements. The contract was signed by the sovereigns, at Santa Fe, on the 17th of April, 1492. Then Columbus departed for Palos.

The port of Palos had lately sinned against the monarchs, and the citizens had been condemned to serve the crown one year with two armed caravels—small, three-masted vessels. Furnished with authority, Columbus caused a royal order to be read commanding the authorities to have two caravels ready for sea within ten days, and they and their crews to be placed at the disposal of the admiral. By the same order he was empowered to fit out a third vessel. The stories of the awful terrors of the far western Atlantic, which everybody believed, made the stoutest hearts of the mariners quail, and for weeks no progress was made toward the equipment of the vessels.

Finally Martin Alonzo Pinzon, and his brother, Vincent Yanez, came forward, and not only engaged to furnish one of the vessels; but as they had promised Columbus, to each go as master of a ship, and to furnish one-eighth the cost of the expedition. These acts of the Pinzons had a powerful effect upon the people, and very soon three vessels—all that were required—were ready for sea.

Two of them were no longer than

our river and our coast sailing vessels—without decks, pierced for oars to be used in calms, with each a forecastle, and a cabin in the high stern, for the accommodation of the ship's company. The largest, which was fitted expressly for the expedition, was decked, and was named the *Santa Maria*. She was the flag-ship of Columbus. One of the caravels was called the *Pinta*, and was commanded by Martin Alonzo Pinzon, who was accompanied by his brother, Francisco Martin, as pilot. The other caravel was called the *Nina*, with lateen sails, and was commanded by Vincent Yanez Pinzon. There were three other pilots, an inspector-general of the armament; Diego de Avana, as chief alguazil or constable. Roderigo de Escobar as notary public and historian, a physician and surgeon, some private adventurers, servants, and ninety mariners, in all, one hundred and twenty persons.

The expedition sailed on Friday, August 3d, 1492. On the 9th they reached the Canary Islands, where they were detained three weeks, and early in September they passed the westernmost of the group, escaped some Portuguese caravels that were sent out to intercept them, and sailed boldly toward the unknown. Expecting to find the eastern shores of Asia, he bore a letter from the Spanish sovereigns to the Grand Khan of Tartary, in whose service Marco Polo had been employed two hundred years before.

They encountered no heavy storms, nor did they observe any of the expected terrors of the trackless deep. When they were two hundred leagues or more westward of the peak of Teneriffe, Columbus observed for the first time in his life, a variation of the needle of his compass from a true line with the north star. They encountered vast masses of seaweeds, hundreds of miles in extent, floating on the ocean. It was doubtless the Sargasso Sea, now so well known to mariners. They were cheered by the sight of a flying heron and a tropical bird which were harbingers of land. The sailors, who had been mutinous at times, were quieted by these promises of nature; but when

they seemed deceptive, the crews became stormy and almost ungovernable, they reproached their sovereigns for trusting the ambitious Italian, who would sacrifice their lives "to make himself a lord." But Columbus quelled the insurrection for the time.

For eleven days after leaving the Canary Islands, the ships had sailed before the easterly trade winds. At early twilight one evening, Martin Pinzon, standing on the high stem of the *Pinta*, and pointing toward the southwest, shouted to the admiral, "Land! land! senior; I claim my reward"—a pension promised by the sovereigns to the first man who should discover land. But the apparition was only a cloud, which vanished before the dawn.

Days passed on, and the sun each evening set in the waves. Martin Pinzon believed that a more southerly course would be wiser, and he was confirmed in his opinion by seeing a flock of parrots flying toward the southwest. He advised them to follow but the admiral kept on his due west course. The crews again became discontented and mutinous. They had lost all hope, and in their desperation they defied Columbus. With the coolness of true courage he said, "This expedition has been sent out by your sovereigns, and come what may I am determined, by the help of God, to accomplish the object of the voyage." "We will cast you into the sea and return to Spain," said the exasperated sailors; and just at sunset, on the evening of the 11th of October, they were about to carry their threat into execution, when a coast-fish was seen to glide by; dolphins played near the surface; a branch of thorn with berries on it floated near, and a staff, artificially carved, came upon the waters to testify of human habitations near. Such unmistakable signs of land close by hushed the voice of rebellion, and the tigers became as meek as lambs.

He enjoined them all to watch, and promised that whoever first discovered land should be given a doublet of velvet in addition to the pension offered by the sovereigns. Eagerly, every man watched far into the night. Columbus

at about ten o'clock thought he saw the glimmer of a distant light. He called Gutierrez, one of the private adventurers, and inquired whether he saw a light. "I do," said Gutierrez. Columbus then called Sanchez, another adventurer, and after a few minutes they all three saw it, gleaming like a torch in a fisherman's boat, rising and falling with the waves. At length, at two o'clock in the morning, whilst the vessels were continuing on their course, a gun fired on board the Pinta announced the joyful tidings that land had been seen. It was first observed by a mariner named Rodrigo de Trina, but, as Columbus had seen the lights several hours before, the award was given to the admiral. The land was clearly seen at a distance of about six miles. With the dawn a beautiful picture was revealed. Wooded shores were in full view. The perfumes of flowers came upon the light land breeze. Birds in gorgeous plumage hovered around the vessels. In spite of every difficulty and danger, Columbus had accomplished his object. "The great mystery of the ocean was revealed." "His theory, which had been the scoff of sages, was triumphantly established; he had secured to himself a glory as durable as the world itself."

At sunrise, Columbus and his companions landed in small boats. Many naked men and one woman, with skin of a dark copper color, who had watched the movements of the Europeans with mingled feelings of curiosity, wonder and awe, now fled in alarm to the deep shadows of the forest. Columbus bearing the Royal Standard, first stepped upon the shore. He was followed by the Pinzons, each carrying the white silk banner of the expedition. When they were all landed, the whole company knelt and kissed the earth for joy. Rising from the ground, Columbus displayed the Royal Standard, and drawing his sword, took possession of the land in the name of the sovereigns of Spain. To the island (for such it proved to be) he gave the name of San Salvador—Holy Saviour. His followers crowded around him with the most

extravagant demonstrations of delight. Those who had been most insolent and mutinous were foremost in the utterance of vows of faithfulness thereafter. Each gladly took an oath of obedience to him, as admiral and viceroy, and the representative of Ferdinand and Isabella. Now the triumph of Columbus was complete.

The native inhabitants had watched the approaching ships since the dawn, with fear and awe, regarding them as monsters of the deep; and when they saw the white men come from them, dressed in gay colors, with shining lace and glittering armor, they supposed them to be superior beings who had come down from the skies. Each party was a wonder to the other. The naked people, with dusky skins, painted with a variety of colors and devices, the men without beards and both sexes having long black hair falling from their heads, over their shoulders and bosoms in great profusion, were unlike any human beings of whom Columbus and his companions had ever heard. By degrees the alarm of the timid natives subsided, and they approached the Europeans, giving and receiving signs of friendship and good will. As the boats of the navigators moved along the shore, in and exploration of the coast of the island, the inhabitants of villages, men women and children, ran to the beach, throwing themselves on the ground, and assuming attitudes of worship of the supposed celestial beings. They made signs for the Spaniards to land, and when they found that the boats kept on their way, many of them went into the sea and swam after them, and others followed in canoes. Believing that he was upon an island of Farther India, Columbus called these wild inhabitants *Indians*, a name which all the native tribes of America have since borne.

The island of San Salvador lies about two hundred and fifty miles E. S. E. of the southern point of the peninsula of Florida, and is one of the larger of the Bahama group. After examining it, the admiral cruised among others of the same group, naming some of them.

He also touched at outlying islands as he sailed southward, and on the 28th of October he saw the northern shores of Cuba. Entering a beautiful river, which he called San Salvador, he anchored, and in honor of Prince Juan, the son of Isabella, he named the great island Juana. But it has retained its native name of Cuba. He sailed northwesterly along its coast as far as the eastern entrance to Laguna de Moron, which was the nearest approach to the North American continent ever vouchsafed to Columbus. There he first saw a weed, the leaves of which the natives rolled into long slim packages, called *tobacco* and smoked. It was the modern cigar. The Spaniards considered the habit a nauseous indulgence, and did not adopt it. They left to an Englishman, born fifty years afterward, the fame of introducing this use of tobacco to Europeans.

Columbus persuaded several of the native inhabitants of Cuba, of both sexes, to go with him to Spain, and at the middle of November he sailed in that direction. Head winds and rough weather caused him to return to Cuba. He signalled for the Pinzons to follow him. Martin Alonzo did not heed the order, and very soon the *Pinta* disappeared on the eastern horizon.

Early in December, Columbus saw the eastern end of Cuba, and a few days later, as he sailed toward Europe, the charming vision of beautiful Hayti burst upon his sight. The country so much resembled Spain in its natural features that he named it Hispaniola—Little Spain. On its shore he lingered with delight many days. He received an invitation from one of the leading caciques or native rulers to anchor his vessels near his residence, and whilst sailing along the coast for the purpose of casting anchor in the harbor of a friendly chief, the *Santa Maria* was wrecked late on Christmas Eve, in consequence of bad steering. Columbus and his crew took refuge on board the *Nina*, commanded by Vincent Pinzon. When the cacique heard of the disaster he sent men and canoes in abundance to unload the vessel. Of the wreck of

the vessel they built a fort, which Columbus named *La Navidad*, in commemoration of their having escaped shipwreck on Christmas Day.

Columbus reported to his sovereigns that there was no better land or people, they were mild and gentle, and loved their neighbors. Thirty-nine of the followers of Columbus remained on the island. Arena, the alguazil, was placed in command of them, and they were conjured by Columbus to act honestly and live in united good fellowship.

In their thirst for gold, they broke every promise, torturing the savages until a fierce Carib chief who ruled the greater part of the island, slew the Spaniards and burnt their fort to ashes. This conduct of the Spaniards, in their future colonization of the West Indies, changed a pagan Eden into a wilderness.

Early in January, 1493, Columbus left *La Navidad*, in the *Nina*, and sailed for Spain. He soon saw the *Pinta*. The avaricious Pinzon had heard of a region of gold from one of the natives, and with a desire to secure the treasure for himself he had deserted the admiral. He had returned to Hispaniola, and there heard of the shipwreck of the *Santa Maria*, but he did not go to the assistance of Columbus because it might interfere with his own selfish projects. The admiral would have cruised longer among the islands, but this conduct of Pinzon, and the fact that the latter had kidnapped four men and two girls for the purpose of selling them as slaves in Spain, had destroyed his confidence in that commander, and he determined to hurry home and rid himself of so undesirable a companion. The *Nina's* prow was turned toward Europe and the *Pinta* followed.

The caravels encountered dead calms and fierce tempests on that winter voyage, and were separated. In one of these storms, Columbus, fearing the destruction of the vessels, and with them the loss of knowledge of his discoveries placed a written narrative of his adventures in a sealed cask, and committed it to the waves. At dawn on the 4th of March, about eight weeks after

she had left La Navidad, the Nina appeared off the rock of Cintra, at the mouth of the Tagus, in Portugal.

Columbus immediately sent a courier with a letter to Ferdinand and Isabella, in which he announced his great discovery. He also wrote a letter to John, King of Portugal. That monarch and his court received Columbus with great honor, and on the 13th of March, Columbus again put to sea. Two days later, the Nina entered the harbor of Palos, where the admiral was received with the greatest demonstrations of joy. It was then seven months and twelve days since he had left that harbor for the regions of the unknown, and out of those mysterious regions he had brought the wonderful tidings of a new found world. On the evening of the same day the Pinta sailed into the harbor of Palos.

Columbus hastened to Seville, where he received a letter from his sovereigns expressing their delight because of his great achievements, and inviting him to repair immediately to their court. Columbus was received by the monarchs with the greatest honors, and in a clear and steady voice recounted the chief incidents of his voyage, exhibited gold and spices, and other productions of the country he had discovered, and presented to them the natives who he had brought from the islands, and declared that this was but the foreshadowing of greater marvels to be revealed.

The Grand Cardinal of Spain, Gonzales de Mendoza, Archbishop of Toledo, who had hinted to a council that the theory of Columbus was irreligious, was now among the first, after the monarchs to honor him. He invited the admiral to a feast, at which was gathered some of the highest prelates and nobles of Catalonia. To the navigator he gave the seat of honor at the table, and other marks of superior distinction. These attentions to one who was so lately a poor Italian mariner excited the envy of some of the guests. A courtier present, moved by a narrow feeling of personal and national jealousy, asked the admiral whether he thought that in case he had not discovered the Indies

(which it was believed he had found), there were not men in Spain who would have been equal to the enterprise? Columbus immediately took an egg that was before him and invited the courtier to make it stand on one of its ends. He could not. All the company tried in vain to do it. Then the admiral struck the egg upon the table so as to flatten the end by a fracture and left it standing. "Anyone could do that," cried the courtier. "After I have shown the way," replied the admiral. "Gentlemen," continued Columbus, "after I have shown a new way to India, nothing is easier than to follow." The courtier was answered.

After giving an account of his voyage and discoveries in a letter to Sanchez, the treasurer of Spain (which was printed), Columbus, at the request of the monarchs, immediately fitted out another expedition to continue his researches in the western seas. The harbor of Cadiz was very soon the scene of busy preparation, and late in September, 1493, the admiral left the bay with three large ships of heavy burthen, and fourteen caravels, with fifteen hundred men. We will not follow him in detail in his subsequent voyages, for they have no special bearing on the history of our country. It is sufficient to say that he made three others from Spain and during the last but one, he discovered the continent of America. When he left Cadiz on his second voyage, in the autumn of 1493, his good fortune seemed to forsake him. His followers were largely selfish and adventurers who went out in search of gold and other treasures. Quarrels and mutinies followed disappointed expectations. The chief blame was laid upon the shoulders of the admiral, and he finally became the victim to the intrigues of vicious men, who, envious of his fame and dignities, sought continually to build up their own fortunes out of the ruins of his character. In 1497, an important event took place in Europe, Vasquez de Gama, a Portuguese mariner, who had been in Prince Henry's service in his youth, passed around the Cape of Good Hope (which

he so named), with an Arabian chart directing his course, and crossing the Indian Ocean landed in India at Calcutta. Africa was circumnavigated, and a new way was opened to India by the ocean pathway of Pharaoh Necho. Prince Henry had then been dead twenty-four years.

Columbus sailed on his third voyage, at the close of May, 1498, with six ships, from the port of San Lucar de Barrameda. Passing the Cape de Verde Islands, he proceeded toward the equator in a southwesterly direction, and then sailed due west with the trade winds, in search of a continent. Supposing Cuba to be a great cape of Asia, he believed that under the equator he would find not only the mainland, but every production of nature in greater profusion, perfection, and preciousness, than elsewhere. He was not disappointed, for on the first of August he saw the continent, not of Asia, but of South America, near the mouth of the Orinoco River. That was not many days after Sebastian Cabot, an English navigator, discovered North America.

Columbus coasted for awhile near the shores of South America, and then, broken in health by his labors, anxieties and exposures, he sailed for his colony on Hispaniola. There he found everything in disorder; and in his efforts to bring order out of confusion, he so interfered with the selfish projects of leading adventurers there, that they determined to ruin him. Preferring malicious and false charges against him at the court of Spain, they induced the sovereigns to send out a commissioner to inquire into the causes of difficulties. Francisco de Bobadilla was sent. He was as ambitious and as unscrupulous as any of the adventurers, and after deposing Columbus from the vice-royalty, he sent him in chains to Spain. Valleja, who was sent with the admiral as a sort of guard, and also the master of the caravel in which Columbus was conveyed, were grieved by this cruel treatment of the man whom they revered. They would have removed his irons, but Columbus would not allow them to do so. "No," he said, proudly; "their ma-

jesties commanded me by letter to submit to whatever Bobadilla should order in their name; by their authority he has put upon me these chains; I will wear them until they shall order them to be taken off, and I will preserve them afterwards as relics and memorials of the reward of my services." It was done. "I saw them always hanging in his cabinet," said his son and biographer, Fernando, "and he requested that when he died, they might be buried with him."

When, after the arrival of the caravel at Cadiz, Isabella heard of the cruel treatment of Columbus, she was very indignant, and sent an order for his immediate restoration to liberty. The sovereigns wrote a letter to him couched in terms of affection and gratitude, expressing their grief because of his sufferings, and inviting him to the court. The people, too, were very indignant, and were loud in their denunciations of the treatment of such a benefactor of their country. When he arrived at Granada, in December, 1498, he was cordially received by the monarchs, who, disavowing the doings of Bobadilla as contrary to their instructions, promised that he should be dismissed from office. But the Spanish nobles, jealous of Columbus because he was evidently a royal favorite, persuaded the King, who was dissatisfied with the apparent unproductiveness of the admiral's discoveries, not to reinstate him in the vice-royalty. Another was appointed in the place of Bobadilla. After experiencing neglect, and alternate hope and disappointment, for almost four years, whilst others were reaping the harvest of his seed time, the admiral was entrusted with the command of a small expedition to find a passage through "the sea" now known as the Gulf of Mexico, into the Indian Ocean. He sailed with four caravels and one hundred and fifty men, early in May, 1502, and after much suffering, returned to Cadiz in November, 1504, sick and dejected. Nineteen days after his arrival, the good Queen Isabella died. "She was one of the purest spirits that ever ruled over the destinies of a nation." With her died the hopes of the

admiral, for he knew how cold and calculating was the disposition of the King. That ungrateful monarch, after torturing the discoverer with cold politeness and evasive promises, for which he was noted, rejected the legal and equitable claims of Columbus to the dignities and emoluments of viceroyalty which had been secured to him by royal contract; and this great and good man, then about seventy years of age, who had given more real honor and glory to Spain than had the whole line of her Kings or the families of her nobles, was allowed to pass the remnant of his days in comparative poverty and obscurity. "I have," Columbus once wrote, "no place to repair to excepting an inn, and often with nothing to pay for my sustenance." At length, when he was utterly prostrated, and hopeless of justice, death came to his relief at Valladolid, on the 20th day of May, 1506, as he was uttering the words, "Lord, into thy hands I commit my spirit." His remains were put into the convent of San Francisco, where for seven years no stone or inscription marked the place of his burial. Then the ashamed King, when the navigators bones were removed to a monastery in Seville, ordered a marble tomb to be placed over them with the inscription: "To Castile and Leon, Columbus gave a New World." More indelibly than on brass or stone, is the truth of that inscription engraved on the memory of mankind.

Columbus died with full faith that although princes might neglect him and wicked men might defraud him, God and eternal justice would vindicate his honor and his fame, and the world would pay to him the just homage due for his services. He also died in the belief that he had discovered Farther India, and not an unknown continent; and such was the belief of all navigators and scientific men at the time.

In the year 1536, the remains of Columbus and of his son Diego were taken to Hispaniola and interred in the Cathedral at San Domingo. There they remained two hundred and sixty years, when, in 1796, they were conveyed in great pomp to Havana, in Cuba, where

they now repose. Some years ago, a magnificent monument to the memory of Columbus was erected in his native city of Genoa, in the centre of one of its public squares, where it is surrounded by flowers and shrubbery. It is composed of Carrara marble, and is about forty feet in height. On four panels between four pedestals are represented, in relief sculpture, four great events in his life, namely, his *Conference with the council at Salamanca*; the *Landing in America*; *Presenting the Indians to Queen Isabella*; and the *Admiral in Chains*. Upon each pedestal is a figure personifying, respectively, *Navigation*, *History*, *Astronomy* and *Wisdom*. On a round shaft, which rises between the figures are sculptured in high relief the prows of ancient vessels. This shaft is surmounted by a slightly colossal statue of Columbus, resting on an anchor, whilst with his right hand he presents a naked Indian maiden, sitting modestly at his feet, holding in her hand a small cross, upon which she is gazing intently, her hand adorned with the plumage of birds. This figure represents *America*; and the faith of Columbus that the New World would receive the religion of Jesus Christ is indicated by the symbol of the Atonement.

Columbus singularly combined the practical and the poetical. His mind had grasped all kinds of knowledge, whether procured by study or observation, which bore upon his theories; impatient of the scanty aliment of the day, "his impetuous ardor," as has been well observed, threw him into the study of the fathers of the church, the Arabian Jews, and the ancient geographers, while his daring but irregular genius, bursting from the limits of imperfect science, bore him to conclusions far beyond the intellectual vision of his contemporaries. If some of his conclusions were erroneous, they were at least ingenious and splendid. And their error resulted from the clouds which still hung over his peculiar path of enterprise. His own discoveries enlightened the ignorance of the age, guided conjecture to certainty, and dispelled that

very darkness with which he had been obliged to struggle. It has been said that mercenary views mingled with the ambition of Columbus, and that his stipulations with the Spanish court were selfish and avaricious. The charge is inconsiderate and unjust. He aimed at dignity and wealth in the same lofty spirit in which he sought renown; they were to be part and parcel of the achievement, and palpable evidence of its success; they were to arise from the territories he should discover, and be commensurate in importance. No condition could be more just.

We have now traced, in brief outline, some of the principal causes which led to the discovery of America, and the chief events in the great pioneer of such discovery. He demonstrated the fact that the earth is globular, and that fertile lands might be found by sailing westward from Europe across the Atlantic Ocean. Having discovered and pointed out the way to these lands, he retired, and other navigators and discoverers appeared upon the scene. The exploits of some of them we will now consider.

AMERICUS VESPUCCIUS.

The name of Americus Vespuccius or Amerigo Vespucci, as the Spaniards call him, appears prominent in history as one of the discoverers of America. He has no valid title to that distinction. Proofs accumulate as investigations proceed, which show conclusively that he was the author or abettor of a stupendous historical fraud, by which Columbus was cheated out of the honor of having his name given to a continent.

Vespuccius first appears in history as a mercantile agent of the Medici family of Florence, first in Barcelona and soon afterward in Seville, Spain. He was about forty years of age, having been born in Florence in 1451. In Seville, he had much personal intercourse with Columbus, whilst the admiral was preparing the large fleet for his second voyage. The narratives of the great Genoese inspired Vespuccius with a strong desire to make a mercan-

tile venture in a voyage to the new found world, and he had ambitious dreams of being a discoverer, likewise. He studied geography and the kindred sciences, to fit himself for such an expedition; and when, in May, 1499, Alonzo deOjedo sailed from Port St. Mary, opposite Cadiz, with four ships, following the southern route of Columbus to South America, Vespuccius accompanied him simply as an adventurer and self-constituted geographer. They discovered mountains in South America, when off the coast of Surinam, and then ran along the continent to Trinidad, which Columbus had named the year before. Thence they cruised along the coasts and islands of Venezuela, and crossing the Caribbean Sea, touched at Hispaniola.

Vespuccius, who seems to have been a shrewd, audacious, and unscrupulous man, immediately sent an account of the discoveries, in a letter, to one of the Medici family, assuming for himself the credit of the discovery; and in order to establish his claim to first discoverer of the American continent, he antedated the time of the commencement of the voyage, making it in 1497, the year before Columbus and Cabot made their respective discoveries, and saying the expedition was absent from Spain twenty-five months. "Ojeda, when judiciously interrogated, gave the lie direct."

Vespuccius, in other letters, told of other voyages and great discoveries which he made whilst in the service of the King of Portugal, but contemporary navigators, and chronicles made no mention of them. They were probably fictions of the boastful Florentine, who had become expert in the construction of charts, and was familiar with the details of the numerous exploring voyages made from Spain and Portugal in his day. Finally, when Columbus was dead and could make neither accusation or denial, these letters were published. In that publication the name *America*, as applied to our continent, was used.

From other circumstances, it is clear that Vespuccius was responsible for

the fraud. He was in communication with a learned German geographer, named Woldseemiller, or as he styled himself in Greek, Hylacomylus, who was a correspondent of the Academy of Cosmography, at Strasburg, and at the request or suggestion of Vespuccius, he proposed to the members of the academy, under whose auspices the letters of Americus were published, the name of *America* for the western continent. At about the same time Hylacomylus published the "Rudiments of Cosmography," in which it was proposed to name the new continent *America*. He took an active part in the publication of the letters of his friend, and he may be regarded as the chief perpetrator of the fraud, with Vespuccius as an accessory.

THE CABOTS.

When Columbus was about to leave Portugal for Spain, he sent his brother Bartholomew to England to ask assistance of the British monarch. For reasons not made clear, he did not apply to the monarch until about the time his brother was on his first voyage of discovery. Henry the Seventh was then King of England, and responded to Bartholomew's request promptly and generously. He sent him to Spain in search of his brother, and to invite him to the English court. At Paris, whilst he was on his way, he heard the joyful news of the great discoveries of his brother.

When King Henry heard of the success of Columbus, he felt a great disappointment, because he had failed to secure for his crown and country the renown and advantages of the great achievement. But he was not discouraged nor deterred from assisting in further attempts at discovery. By royal charter he gave to John Cabot (a Venetian merchant at Bristol), and his sons, in 1496, permission to explore any seas with five ships and as many seamen as they might choose to employ, at their own expense, "to discover and occupy isles or countries of the heathen or infidels before unknown to Christians, accounting to the King for a fifth

part of the profit upon their return to the port of Bristol." There is no positive evidence that the Cabots took advantage of this privilege, or that any of them engaged in a voyage of discovery before the year 1498, when John Cabot was dead.

All Europe was then ringing with the fame of Columbus. Maritime nations and seamen everywhere were crazed with a desire to be the discoverers of new lands and to gather immense riches from glittering mines. Englishmen caught the infection, and their ambitions and avaricious monarch was as eager as any. Piqued at the glory of the Spanish monarchs, he listened with eager attention to a proposition of Sebastian, a young son of John Cabot, concerning a voyage of discovery.

Sebastian Cabot appears to have been an ardent student of geography and kindred sciences, from early life. When he reached young manhood he was proficient in the theory and practice of the navigator's art. To him King Henry not only gave a commission to go on a voyage of discovery, but fitted out two small vessels for him, in the year 1498.

All accounts of that voyage are very meagre, and most of them are somewhat contradictory. Sebastian Cabot had probably sailed as far as Cape Farewell, in Greenland, on trading voyages in his father's ships, and he knew of the cold, icy sea beyond. Now he voyaged in the same direction, hoping to make a passage to India during the warm summer time. Leaving Bristol in May, 1498, with two caravels and a full supply of men, he sailed to the northwest until the ice pack in Davis' Straits barred the way. Turning southward, he discovered land late in June or early in July, which he named *Prima Vista*—First View. Whether this was the northern shores of Newfoundland, or the continent on the coast of Labrador, near Cape Charles, cannot be determined. Unlike Lief the Northman, who sailed southward after seeing the land, Cabot turned northward in search of a passage to Cathay, and followed the coast of the continent

almost to the sixtieth degree of north latitude, when ice would permit him to go no further. Although it was about mid-summer, the weather was very cold; and seeing no prospect of an open sea further northward, Cabot sailed back, discovered a large island which he called New-found-land—Newfoundland—and observed the immense number of cod fishes, which have continued to fill the waters there ever since. He divulged this secret to Europe after his return, and within five or six years thereafter, fishermen from England, Brittany and Normandy were off Newfoundland, gathering these treasures of the sea. Cabot coasted as far as the coast of Maine, and some writers think no further, but if a report from the Pope's legate, be true, he sailed as far as the Carolinas. His supplies now failing he was compelled to return to England.

The discovery of North America, by young Cabot, then only twenty-one years of age, had conferred more immortal honor on the English monarch and the English nation than all the royal affiliations and the heaping up of gold. He was a native of England, and had opened a pathway for his countrymen to a new continent. But he was neglected by his King, and he finally went into the service of Spain. He was so annoyed by the jealousies of the Spanish nobles, that he returned to his native country, and not long after we find him on another voyage in search of a northwest passage to the Indian Seas. He penetrated to Hudson's Bay, and after fighting an ice-pack there, he returned to England discomfited, and never made another voyage to the coast of North America.

When the news of Cabot's discovery of a continent in the Northwest, reached Lisbon, King Emanuel the Great, immediately fitted out an expedition under Gaspar Cortereal. He first touched the northern extremity of Newfoundland, and, it is believed, discovered the Gulf of St. Lawrence. He went up the coast of Labrador almost to Hudson's Bay, discovering nothing of importance not already seen by Ca-

bot. The natives appeared to be rugged and strong, so some of them were seized and carried back to Portugal as slaves. The natives appeared to be so admirably fitted for hard labor, that they named the country Laborador (Labrador).

The profits of this voyage excited the cupidity of Cortereal and his King, and they determined to engage in an active slave trade with Labrador. Cortereal went on a second voyage in 1501 and was lost at sea. His brother Michael went in search of him and was never heard from afterward. The King sent a ship to search for the brothers, but no tidings were brought back. These disasters frustrated the cruel designs of the slave-traders, and the Portuguese monarch sought to win glory for his favorite and his crown, by claiming that Cortereal was not only the first discoverer of Newfoundland, but that he was the first to see the continent in that region. In a Portuguese map, published in 1508, the coast of Labrador is called Cortereal's Land; and in support of the claim that he was the first discoverer of it, maps were actually forged. But all efforts to deprive Cabot of that honor failed.

JUAN PONCE DE LEON.

Was a native of Leon, in Spain. From an early age he had been schooled in war, and had served in the various campaigns against the Moors. He accompanied Columbus, on his second voyage in 1493, and remained in the colony at Hispaniola. He proved his sagacity and valor in many battles against the Indians, for which he was appointed Lieutenant to the Governor and afterward Governor of Porto Rico, a neighboring island.

He was then an old man animated with the ambitions of youth; and he was still seeking renown and wealth. The enjoyment of life had ever been a pleasure to him, and his desire to prolong his earthly existence in vigor was intense. That desire made him readily believe the marvelous tales told by some of the natives, of crystal waters

flowing from living springs among the Bahama Islands, on the coast of a beautiful country near them, in which he who bathed would be instantly endowed with immortal youth and great beauty. They told him these fountains of youth were among magnificent trees which bore golden fruit, and that these fruits were gathered and given to strangers by beautiful maidens. Ponce dreamed of these gardens, their fountains, their golden fruit and the beautiful maidens, until he could no longer repress his desire to go in search of them. So, at the beginning of Spring, in 1512—a month after Vespuccius died at Seville—he sailed from Porto Rico for the Bahamas, with ships fitted out at his own expense. On reaching the group, he went from island to island tasting of and bathing in every stream and lake that met his vision. Finally, disappointed but not disheartened, he extended his researches in a northwesterly direction. A few days afterwards, west winds brought the delicious perfumes of flowers. The heart of the old cavalier leaped with joy and hope. Soon a long line of wooded shores were in view, and as he drew near, Ponce saw lofty trees (*magnolias*) whose marvelous blossoms were tinting the forest, and burdening the air with their delicate fragrance. He believed he was on the borders of the fabled paradise.

It was Easter morning when Ponce and his companions landed near the site of St. Augustine, on the southeastern borders of our Republic. He took possession of the great island, as he supposed it to be, in the name of the sovereign of Castile. Because of its wealth of flowers, some say, or because he first saw the land on Palm Sunday (*Pascua Florida*) as others tell us, he gave to the country the name of Florida, now one of the States of our Union. Among its forests and savannahs he sought in vain for the miraculous fountain of Youth and Beauty, exciting the suspicions of the natives. Then he cruised along its shores, doubled Cape Canaveral, and struggling with the Gulf Stream, sailed

southward until he became entangled in a group of small islands abounding with huge turtles. This group he called the *Tortugas*—the Turtles—their present name. After buffeting the elements for several days, Ponce instructed one of his trusted captains to continue the search. Then he returned to Porto Rico, an older if not a wiser man.

Ortubia, the trusted captain, soon returned to Porto Rico, he had found beautiful groves, sparkling springs, and limpid streams, but not one could return to an old man the vernal greenness of his youth. A few months later Ponce returned to Spain, he told the sovereign of the beautiful land he had discovered, and received the appointment of Governor of Florida on condition that he should plant a colony there. This was not attempted until several years afterward. He had been moping in disappointment at Porto Rico, after an unsuccessful expedition against the Caribs, until he was assured that Florida was not an island, but a part of the continent. Then ambitious desires moved his sluggish heart, and the brilliant achievements of Cortez: Hernando Cortez, with comparatively few followers, landed on the coast of Mexico, invaded that country, and conquered a wonderful people, whom we have previously described (see *Aztecs of Mexico*), whose government showed a near approach to civilization. Securing immense treasure for himself and Spain, and giving enormous territory to the crown. This aroused the slumbering energies of the old cavalier. With nearly all his wealth in two ships, he sailed from Porto Rico, in 1521, and landed on the shores of Florida, not far from where he had first discovered that land, to prepare for founding a colony there. He was met by a crowd of natives who had gathered near the beach with bows and arrows and long javelins, to defend their land from the intrusion of the palefaces, for they had lately been taught, by the bitter experience of their neighbors, to look upon them as children of the Evil Spirit. A sharp battle ensued. Several of the

Spaniards were killed, and Ponce De Leon, badly wounded in his thigh, was carried on board his ship and conveyed to Cuba, where he died. Upon his tomb was written in Latin: "In this Sepulchre rests the Bones of a Man who was a Lion by Name and still more by Nature."

Luke Vasquez D'Allyon, a wealthy colonist of Hayti, had his avarice aroused, by the reports of a mariner who had accidentally visited the coast near the entrance to the Savannah River, where the natives presented him with gold and pearls. He represented the masculine natives as athletic and fine looking. D'Allyon formed a company, whose object was to obtain slaves to work in the mines. With two ships he sailed in a northwesterly direction, in the year 1520, and soon arrived on the coast of South Carolina. He was met with kindness by the natives, and invited a number on board his vessel, where he plied them with strong drink, and while they were in a stupid condition, sailed away and carried them to Hayti as slaves. The story of this perfidy and wickedness spread rapidly from lip to lip along the coast, even so far as the region of St. Augustine, and it aroused those natives to acts of defence and revenge, which resulted in the wounding of Ponce de Leon, and the expulsion of his followers from the land, the next year.

Instead of being punished for his crime against mankind, D'Allyon was rewarded as a discoverer of new lands, when he visited the court of Spain, soon afterwards. He was also appointed chief magistrate of Chicora, as the native South Carolinians called their country; and he was vested with authority to plant a colony there. Under this commission he fitted out three ships at Hayti, and with the mariner Miruela, who first saw the coast near the mouth of the Savannah River, he sailed for Chicora, and passing through St. Helen's Sound reached the continent near the mouth of the Combahee. There he opened traffic with the natives, who seemed indifferent to his crime, and when he had finished trad-

ing he proceeded to plant his colony on an island in the waters of Port Royal Sound, near the sight of the present town of Beaufort, South Carolina.

A part of D'Allyon's company had landed and prepared to lay the foundations of a town, when a deputation came from the sachem of the Combahee and invited the Spaniards to a great feast at his village at the mouth of that river. About two hundred of them went to the banquet, and were treated with the most friendly hospitalities. For three days and three nights the feast went on, and at the end of it, whilst the guests were soundly sleeping, the Indians fell upon and massacred the whole of them. They had fully matched the treachery of the palefaces, but they were not satisfied. Hastening to the site of the projected town, they slew many there. Some of the Spaniards escaped to the ships. Among them was D'Allyon, who, badly wounded, died soon afterward. Retribution justice had overtaken him on the theatre of his great crime. So perished the first germ of settlement of Europeans that was planted in the soil of our present domain.

DISCOVERY OF THE PACIFIC OCEAN.

The Pacific Ocean, whose waters lave the western shores of our Republic along a distance, as a bird flies, of sixteen degrees of latitude, from San Diego on the south to Cape Flattery on the north, was discovered by one of the Spanish adventurers, Vasco Nunez de Balboa, an active and energetic young man of noble lineage, but of small fortune, who crossed the Atlantic to the West Indies in search of wealth, in the year 1501. He was forced to leave Hispaniola, having fallen in debt, and joined other Spanish adventurers in Central America.

Discontent arose among the adventurers, and Nunez succeeded in having himself made chief magistrate, and was soon joined by two Spaniards who, to avoid punishment, had fled from Darien and found refuge and the kindest

treatment with Careta, the cacique of Coyba. They requited this hospitality of the pagan chief by advising Nunez to attack Careta in his dwelling, where he would find immense booty. The governor prepared to do so. One of the Spaniards returned to Careta to assist Nunez in his betrayal, and the other acted as guide to the invaders. Nunez was kindly received by the cacique and his people, and departed with presents. He halted a little way from the village, and when the Indians were all asleep, he led his men at mid-night into the town and made Careta, his wives and children and many of his people captives. With them and a considerable booty, the treacherous Nunez returned to Darien, when the good cacique, distressed at his situation, said, "What have I done to thee that thou shouldst treat me thus cruelly? None of thy people ever came to my land that were not fed, and sheltered, and treated with loving kindness. When thou comest to my dwelling did I meet thee with a javelin in my hand? Did I not set meat and drink before thee, and welcome thee as a brother? Set me free, therefore, with my family and people, and we will remain thy friends. We will supply thee with provisions, and reveal to thee the riches of the land. Dost thou doubt my faith? Behold my daughter! I will give her to thee as a pledge of my friendship. Take her for thy wife, and be assured of the fidelity of her family and her people."

Careta's daughter was young and beautiful. Nunez was deeply impressed with her charms. He granted the prayer of Careta, took his daughter to be his wife, according to the usages of her country, and becoming very fond of her, she soon acquired great influence over him. He assisted Careta in his wars against his enemies, and they became fast friends. Whilst visiting a powerful cacique, a friendly neighbor of Careta, Nunez was told by a son of that chief, that beyond the mountains toward which he pointed, was a mighty sea that could be discovered from the summits of the great hills; that the sea was navigated by vessels

almost as large as the Spanish brigantines and equipped like them with sails and oars; that the rivers which flowed down from the southern slopes of the mountains abounded with gold, and that there was a country further southward, bordering on that great sea, where the Kings ate and drank out of golden vessels, and that gold was as plentiful there as iron was among the Spaniards.

This information seemed like a revelation from heaven beaming into the mind of Nunez. He felt a sudden impulse to abandon his wayward life, and an ambition to be ranked among the great discoverers of the age. If he could first see that mighty ocean and the precious rivers, and the country where its Kings ate and drank out of golden vessels, he would surely be elevated to fame and fortune. He eagerly inquired how the summits of the mountains and the borders of the sea might be reached. "You will have to fight your way to the top and down its slopes, and through the plains beyond, with powerful caciques and brave warriors," said the young man. "You will need a thousand men, armed like those who follow you."

Nunez hastened back to Darien to make preparations for his journey. His thoughts were wholly occupied with plans for the discovery of the great sea beyond the mountains. With gold of the value of fifteen thousand crowns, which he sent to Don Diego Columbus, in Hispaniola, to be forwarded to the King as the royal share of the winnings in Central America, he sent an appeal to that officer for aid in men and provisions, to enable Nunez to fight his way across the isthmus. Whilst awaiting an answer he made several expeditions from Darien, and everywhere he heard the story of the great sea beyond the mountains. Finally, one hundred and fifty men with ample supplies, arrived at Darien from Hispaniola, and Nunez determined to march for the mountain summits. With one hundred and ninety men and a number of blood hounds, he made his way to Coyba, where Careta furnished

him with guides and Indian warriors; and on the 6th of September, 1513, the expedition set off for the great hills which loomed up in the southern horizon. They fought their way victoriously, spreading terror among the natives by their guns, which, to the Indians, seemed like demons vomiting lightning and thunder.

At ten o'clock in the morning of the 26th of September, Nunez and his followers emerged from a thick forest high up on the mountain range. Only sixty-seven of his Spanish soldiers now remained, who were able to climb that rugged height. The bald, rock summit alone remained to be ascended. Commanding his followers to halt, and not a man to stir from his place, he climbed to that summit, when the glorious apparition of a broad sea burst upon his vision. It seemed to him that a new and unknown world, separated from the known by the lofty mountain barrier on which he stood, had been unfolded to him. He then shouted to his followers to come up; and when they had gathered around him on that breezy height, and beheld the sea stretching out interminably, he exhorted them to be faithful to him and valorous in the conquests of the rich heathen lands before them. So it was that the Pacific Ocean was discovered by Vasco Nunez de Balboa. It was called by him the South Sea, but Magellan, who sailed into it through the straits which bear his name, a few years later, called it the Pacific Ocean, because its waters were far less turbulent than those of the Atlantic, which he had just crossed.

Descending the mountains on their southern sides, Nunez and his followers made their way to the sea. As the tide came flowing in upon the sandy beach, the leader took a banner, then drawing his sword and throwing his buckler over his shoulder, he marched into the water until it covered his knees, and waving his banner he, with a loud voice, proclaimed that he took possession of that sea and its islands, in the name of the sovereigns of Spain.

After that Nunez made voyages along the coast of the Pacific, and

heard tidings of the rich Kingdom of Peru, where the Incas or monarchs ate and drank out of vessels of gold. Vasco Nunez de Balboa, falsely accused of traitorous intentions by his jealous rival and successor, Davila, was beheaded at Acla, in Central America, by order of that officer, in 1517, when he was in the forty-second year of his age.

In 1519 Ferdinand Magellan started out on what proved to be the most famous voyage in history up to that time. Sailing down the coast of South America he found the strait that bears his name, passed into the Pacific, and after almost unheard of perils, reached the Philippine Islands, where he was killed. One of his ships kept on and finally reached home in 1522, after circumnavigating the earth.

HERNANDO DE SOTO.

Gold was the great object of the Spanish adventurers. For it they left home and country, and suffered the most unheard of hardships.

One of the most noted of these was Francisco Pizarro, the brilliant successor of Cortez in Mexico, and the tales of the great wealth of the Incas of Peru fired him with an ambition to follow Cortez's example, and make a conquest of that great and wealthy country.

As early as 1526, he contemplated an invasion of Peru, making several attempts, and finally in January, 1531, sailed with three vessels and about one hundred and eighty men, and twenty-seven horses. He was joined later in the year by Hernando De Soto and a band of recruits. De Soto proving to be one of his most able companions.

Having suppressed all opposition, in November, 1533, he was prepared to enter Cuzco, the capital of Peru.

Pizarro found a country in a high state of cultivation, and with well built roads, and cities, and with a well organized and stable form of government. He was received with friendship by the reigning Inca, and returned

this with the usual Spanish cruelty in the New World.

He took the capital, and by the most treacherous means put the Inca to death, and gained immense treasure, in gold, silver and pearls. Pizarro used these measures in opposition to the judgment of De Soto and other of his companions.

De Soto, with his share of the booty, returned to Spain.

De Soto was of gentle birth; of known pre-eminence as a soldier; wise in council; prudent in action; brave to rashness in conflict, and his reputation was without blemish. In person he was elegant; in deportment courtly; as a horseman expert, and in the prime of young manhood.

De Soto longed to rival Cortez and Pizarro in the brilliancy of his deeds. He had appeared at the court of Charles the Fifth in great splendor, as one of the richest men in Spain, and had been favorably received. He had lately married Isabella de Bobadilla, a scion of one of the most renowned of the Castilian families, and his influence in court was thereby strengthened; and when he, who, as one of the conquerors of Peru under Pizarro, proposed an expedition for the conquest of Florida, hundreds of young men, the flower of the Spanish and Portuguese nobility, flocked to his standard.

De Soto had heard the story of the survivor of the disastrous Narvaez expedition.

Pamphilio de Narvaez, who was sent to Mexico to supersede Cortez, had extraordinary adventures afterwards as a discoverer in Florida. He went to Spain to complain of Cortez, where he remained several years, and finally, in June, 1527, he sailed under the authority of the monarch, commissioned to conquer and govern Florida. With less than four hundred men and forty-two horses, he landed on the west side of the present Tampa Bay, on the 13th of April, 1528. Instead of pursuing a policy of kindness in his intercourse with the Indians, he used the usual Spanish cruelty, and the results were

disastrous to him, and to those adventurers who followed him.

Instead of finding a country of gold, he found nothing but warlike savages, who fought him at every step. After untold hardships, he finally reached the Gulf of Mexico, expecting to find his fleet. Not seeing any of his vessels, he and what remained of his companions, embarked in small, frail boats that they had built, and were nevermore heard from. De Vaca, the treasurer of the expedition, was stranded on an island, and he and his companions were kindly treated by the Indians. After eight years of captivity, he made his way on foot from tribe to tribe, until he had crossed the continent, and arrived at a port occupied by his countrymen on the Gulf of California. Thence he made his way to Spain, where he appeared at the court as one risen from the dead. De Vaca seems to have been the only Spaniard who survived and returned to Spain. His narrative was soon published, and it was read with an appetite such as the most marvelous romance creates.

And when De Soto offered to undertake the conquest of Florida at his own expense, the permission of his sovereign was readily given. He was commissioned governor of Cuba, and made Captain General of the province he might secure by conquest on the main. He soon gathered a band of six hundred adventurers, for De Soto believed there was more gold in Florida than in Mexico and Peru together, and said so. De Soto sailed early in April, 1538, his armament consisted of seven large and three smaller vessels, and at the close of May, the ships all entered Cuban waters.

Toward the middle of May, 1539, De Soto sailed from Havana with a fleet of nine vessels, large and small, and about a thousand followers, with many horses, cattle, mules, and a herd of swine. His voyage was pleasant; and when the armament anchored in Tampa Bay, near where Narvaez had landed, delicious perfumes came from the shores, for all Florida was in bloom. It was the 30th of May.

Had De Soto been wiser than the other conquerers, and conciliated the Indians by friendly acts, all might have been well. But he was no wiser than they.

De Soto was now ready to enter upon the conquest of Florida. His troops were clad in coats of steel to repel arrows, and bore breast plates and helmets of the same metal. They had strong shields, swords, lances, arquebuses (a kind of rude, short guns), cross-bows and one cannon. The cavaliers were mounted on one hundred and thirteen horses. Savage bloodhounds from Cuba were the allies of the Spaniards. De Soto began his march in June, 1539. From the outset he was met by the most vigorous opposition. In narrow defiles and other exposed places, he and his followers were assailed by clouds of arrows from the hands of a multitude of natives, who had been made intensely revengeful because of the cruelties of Narvaez and his men. They had resolved to fight the invaders until not one should be left upon the soil. Cruelty was met with cruelty. When a Spaniard was captured, he was mercilessly slaughtered. The captives were made beasts of burden, without regard to age or sex. The antagonism of the races was fearful. When De Soto, hoping to conciliate Acuera, a powerful Muscogee or Creek chief, whose territory he had entered, and invited the cacique to a friendly interview, he received this haughty reply:

"Others of your accursed race have, in years past, disturbed our peaceful shores. They have taught me what you are. What is your employment? To wander about like vagabonds from land to land; to rob the poor; to betray the confiding; to murder the defenceless in cold blood. No! with such a people I want neither peace nor friendship. War—never ending, exterminating war—is all I ask."

In reply to a demand that he should yield obedience to the Emperor, Acuera as haughtily said, "I am King in my own land and will never become a vassal of a mortal like myself." De Soto pressed his suit for a friendly inter-

view, but was always answered by the cacique that he had given him all the reply that he had to make.

Cutting his way through hostile tribes, De Soto reached the fertile region of Tallahassee, where he wintered. The commander of the vessels was ordered to Cuba immediately, and thence convey provisions and other supplies to Pensacola, a sheltered harbor they had found, whilst De Soto should march across the country to the same point. Having been told that gold abounded in the north, De Soto first went in that direction as far as Silver Bluff, on the Savannah River. On the opposite side of the stream (in Barnwell District, S. C.) lived an Indian "queen," young, beautiful and a maiden, who ruled over a large extent of country. In a richly wrought canoe, filled with shawls and skins and other presents, the dusky cacica glided across the river, and with kind words welcomed the governor and offered him her services. Presents were exchanged. A magnificent string of pearls was upon her neck. This she drew over her head and hung it around the neck of De Soto as token of her regard. Then she invited him and his followers to cross over to her village. In canoes and log rafts they passed the stream, and encamping in the shadows of mulberry trees they soon received a bountiful supply of turkeys and venison. De Soto requited the hospitality of the royal maiden by carrying her away prisoner, and kept her near his person as hostage for the good behavior of her people toward the Spaniards. She finally escaped and returned to her home, a bitter enemy of the perfidious white people.

The Spaniards marched to the headwaters of the Savannah, turned westward and crossing northern Georgia, through the picturesque Cherokee country, and entered the village Chiaha, on the site of modern Rome. They were received with the greatest hospitality, and to De Soto was given a string of pearls two yards long, each pearl as large as a filbert. They remained thirty days, and then, marching eastward, entered northeastern Ala-

bama in the fertile Coosa country. It was late in July, 1540. The young chief of this country met the Spaniards with amity and kindness, and besought De Soto to plant a colony anywhere in his dominions. De Soto continued his march through the beautiful regions of Alabama, taking with him the cacique of Coosa, as hostage, as far as the town of Tallase, where he was dismissed. Pushing southward, the Spaniards approached the temporary residence of Tuscaloosa, the renowned chief known as the Black Warrior, who was gigantic in stature, and the head of the Mobilian Indians. He was forty years of age, a head taller than any of his warriors, with a handsome face of grace and severe aspect.

Lord of many tribes, he was feared by his neighbors and subjects; and his influence was widely spread over the region of the Alabama River to that of the Mississippi. He received De Soto with haughty courtesy, and proceeded with him to his capital, called Manbila, believed to be the site of Choctow Bluff, in Clark county, about twenty-five miles above the confluence of the Alabama and Tombigbee Rivers. Tuscaloosa soon found that he was considered by De Soto as a hostage, and in revenge, and to avenge the wrongs of his race, attacked the Spaniards with great fury. The conflict was disastrous to both races. Eighty-two Europeans perished, among whom were some of the brightest flowers of Spanish chivalry. It was estimated that eleven thousand native Alabamians fell in battle or were burned in the houses. Tuscaloosa was dead, Manbila was a smoking ruin, and its inhabitants had perished.

De Soto now learned that his squadron was in the bay of Pensacola. The news of his ships gave him great joy; but his spirits were soon clouded by a conspiracy which had been formed among some of his followers, to abandon him and sail in the ships from Pensacola to Spain or Peru. This discovery changed his plans. He resolved to turn his back upon his ships and go deeper into the wilderness.

This determination was announced on the 18th of November, 1540.

Northward the Spaniards marched, and on reaching the waters of the Black Warrior River, they were met by a large force of Indians in battle array, who longed to avenge the destruction of their friends at Manbila. De Soto was compelled to fight his way inch by inch. At length, after passing over the uplands of Mississippi, he reached the upper tributaries of the Yazoo River in Yalobusha county, and encamped in front of the town of Chickasa, the capital of the Chickasa nation. It was now December. When March came and De Soto thought of marching forward, he demanded of the chief two hundred men as burden-bearers. The cacique answered the demand by a furious attack upon the Spanish camp on a dark night, during a wild gale from the north. The Spaniards fought valiantly as best they might, and finally drove their dusky assailants into the forests. But the disaster to the Europeans was greater than that which befell them at Manbila. They had lost forty of their diminished number. The only Spanish woman in the camp—the wife of a soldier—was burned to ashes. Fifty horses had perished, and most of the men saved nothing except what they had on their backs or in their hands.

The remainder of the inclement season was spent by the Spaniards in great wretchedness. Cold and hunger, and grievous wounds tortured them; and the Indians fell upon them night after night like fierce tigers. At length the warm sun of April arrived, and De Soto moved in a northwesterly direction, in search of the land of gold, about which he had dreamed so long. The exasperated savages assailed him everywhere, and at a town called Alibamo, he had another desperate encounter with them. Then he moved on, and in May he stood upon the banks of the Mississippi River, in Tunica county, near the lower Chickasa Bluffs, above the mouth of the St. Francis River. The mighty Mississippi, then filled to the brim, filled De Soto with admiration. He had not found gold, but he

was the first European who found the great river upon whose bosom floats, annually, wealth a thousand fold greater than the mines of Mexico and Peru ever yielded. He was not the conqueror of a country, teeming with a weak people; but he had achieved a conquest far more glorious than Cortez or Pizarro had done, and had secured immortality for his name and deeds.

Still thirsting for gold, and expecting to find the Pacific Ocean not far off, De Soto crossed the Mississippi River; traversed the lagoons of Arkansas; climbed over the great Ozark Hills and penetrated the country westward almost to the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains. For a year he wandered in those wild regions; wintered far up the Arkansas River, and in the month of May, 1542, returned to the Mississippi at a point a little north of the mouth of the Arkansas.

On the eastern bank of the great river, he selected a site for a colony, but the natives showed such intense hostility to the Spaniards, that, utterly discouraged, he began the construction of two brigantines wherewith to communicate with Cuba. Exhausted in body and mind, he was soon prostrated by a malignant fever. Satisfied that he could not live, he appointed Mascoso, his lieutenant, to be his successor in office and commander of the ragged remnant of his troops. He exhorted them to keep together, bade them farewell, and then died! To conceal the fact of his death, and to protect his body from desecration by the savages, his followers placed it in a trough made of a live oak; and at mid-night, when darkness was intense, they sunk it to the bottom of the river. So perished the discoverer of the Mississippi, in the beautiful month of May, 1542, at the early age of forty-two years.

The remnant of the expedition, after enduring untold miseries, reached Panuco, a Spanish settlement on the Gulf of Mexico.

During the years between 1535-1543, while De Soto was making his explorations in Florida, several Spanish ex-

peditions were sent from Mexico. One of which sent out by Cortez, discovered the peninsula of California. Others explored the Pacific Coast from Lower California to Oregon. Caronada, in 1540, led an expedition to the strange cities of the Zunius and Moquis Indians, and as far north as Nebraska.

We will now leave the Spanish discoverers, and turn our attention to others who made voyages to the coast of North America on similar errands.

Francis the First, of France, sent an expedition of four ships, late in the year 1523, for exploration on the North American coast, under command of John Verazzani, a Florentine, of whom very little is known. The only record of the voyage is a letter sent to the King, after his return, by which it seems he sailed for the Madeiras in December, 1523, and left them on the 27th of January, 1524. Three of his ships were disabled and put back, he kept on in the one ship, and reached the North American coast in latitude 34 degrees north, not far from Cape Fear, North Carolina. That was the month of March. He explored the coast, stopping at Albermarle Sound, and from his description he must have reached the harbor of New York and discovered the mouth of the Hudson River. After touching the coast of Maine, he sailed eastward and northward until he came to Newfoundland. He then returned to France. Verazzani had traversed the borders of the North American continent, as his ship sailed, about two thousand miles, and he named the vast country *New France*. He appears to have communicated with Henry the Eighth of England, for Henry sent two exploring expeditions, one in 1527 and the other in 1536.

For several years, voyages of discovery from Europe to America ceased. Then a plan for making settlements in New France was arranged, and two ships of sixty tons each, under command of Jacques Cartier (James Carter) was sent out by the French monarch.

Cartier left St. Malo, on April 20th, 1534, his voyage was prosperous, and

he reached the eastern coast of Newfoundland in twenty days. He sailed northward, entered the straits of Belle Isle and touched the coast of Labrador. After spending some weeks in exploring the Gulf west and southwest of Newfoundland, he discovered the Magdelena Islands, the northern coast of Cape Breton, and the bays of Chaleurs and Gaspé. Sailing northward and doubling the east end of the great Anticosti Island, he went up that branch of the St. Lawrence some distance, without suspecting that he was in the mouth of a great river, whose chief sources were immense inland seas of fresh water. He then returned to France, reaching St. Malo early in September.

Cartier made a second voyage, sailing on the 19th of May, 1535. He explored the gulf on which he had sailed the previous year, naming it the St. Lawrence, along with the mighty river that entered into it. Sailing up the river, he discovered the present sites of Quebec and Montreal, and returned to France the 6th of July, 1536. Cartier's report on the extreme rigors of the winter climate, discouraged any further expeditions for some time.

Two other expeditions were sent to Canada, one in 1541, and the other in 1549, under Francis de la Roque. They were barren of any results, and De la Roque was never heard from after the second expedition.

The Huguenots, as the French Protestants were called, resolved to procure an asylum in the milder regions of North America, where they might enjoy perfect religious and civil freedom. Admiral Coligni, high in the favor of Catharine de Medici, who was acting regent of France, was one of the most conspicuous leaders. He was readily granted permission to fit out an expedition, and on the 18th of February, 1562, in two vessels under command of John Ribault, an experienced mariner, they sailed from Havre de Grace.

They arrived below the site of St. Augustine, at the close of April, and on the 3d of May sailed northward, and entered the fine harbor of Port Royal,

on the coast of South Carolina. They explored the surrounding country, and decided to found a colony on Port Royal Island, near the site of the present town of Beaufort. They built a fort and named it Fort Charles (Fort Carolus or Carolina) in honor of the King. After leaving a colony of thirty persons, Ribault sailed for France, whence he expected to return immediately with supplies for the colony.

The colonists at Port Royal were very happy for awhile, but not having cultivated a rod of land, their provisions ran short, and they were compelled to look to their Indian neighbors for support. Their house, in which everything was stored was burned, and they were left desolate.

Dissension now appeared among the colonists. The Governor applied the rules of discipline so harshly, that the people mutinied and put him to death. Famine and the menacing attitude of the Indians determined them to desert Port Royal and return to France. They constructed a frail vessel, scantily provisioned, and set out. Their food was soon exhausted, starvation came, and they were compelled to subsist on their shoes and leather doublets, but one after another died and fell into the sea. It is said they were at last compelled to subsist upon one another for food. The survivors were at last rescued by a small English vessel. It is not known where they landed, but it is certain that a part of the French adventurers were taken into the presence of Queen Elizabeth of England, and their account of the beauties of Florida created an intense desire on the part of the English to colonize that region.

When Ribault returned to France, a religious war was raging and it was not until April 22d, 1564, that another expedition was sent out. This was under command of Rene Laudonniere, who had accompanied Ribault in the preceding voyage. In two months they arrived and anchored in the St. Johns River. They did not go to Port Royal, so it is evident they had heard the report of those who had abandoned Fort Charles, before they left France. They

were received with great friendship by the Indians, who gave them permission to erect a fort, which they called Fort Carolina. Through dissensions, idleness and a thirst for gold, where none could be found, the colony did not prosper, and they were about to return to Europe when Ribault arrived with fresh supplies and more colonists. This was near the end of August, 1565.

During this time, great religious persecutions were being carried on, with great fury, in Europe, Menendez, a great Spanish sea captain, was instructed by his sovereign to exterminate all Protestants in whatever corner of the world he might find them. In a great expedition he sailed, and arrived on the coast of Florida. He laid the foundations of the city of St. Augustine, forty years earlier than those of any other town in America, north of Mexico. This was in the year, 1565.

Menendez now attacked Fort Carolina, destroyed it, and butchered its inhabitants, men, women and children. A few men were hanged upon trees, and over them was placed the inscription:

"Not as Frenchmen, But, as Lutherans."

The French, no matter what their religious convictions, were greatly moved by these horrid crimes against their countrymen. The French court appearing to be indifferent to these outrages, Dominic de Gourges, a member of an eminent family, and a devout Roman Catholic, fitted out an expedition at his own expense, being refused assistance from his King. With three small vessels, one hundred soldiers and eighty mariners, he arrived on the coast of Florida in the spring of 1568. The Indians received him with friendship, and became his allies against the Spaniards. The Spaniards had built two forts on the St. Johns River, on opposite banks. These forts were attacked and the garrison massacred. They now marched to the Spanish fort on the site of the former Fort Carolina, which was captured. There was an indiscriminate massacre as before, a few only being reserved as prisoners. Now

these, with others that had been reserved, were placed in rows on trees, upon which the Huguenots had been hung. They were all suspended by their necks. Over them he placed the inscription: "Not as Spaniards and Mariners, But as Traitors, Robbers and Murderers."

De Gourges now returned to France.

Menendez firmly planted a colony at St. Augustine, and sent an expedition to explore the waters of the Chesapeake Bay, but his death in 1574 arrested the enterprise, and no further attempts were made by the Spaniards to settle within the domain of our Republic.

From the tales of the survivors of the ill-fated, first expedition of John Ribault, and from Walter Raleigh, a young Devonshire gentleman, of a good family, was well educated, and who had heard from De Gourges, while in the service of the Huguenots of France, the story of the foray in Florida; Queen Elizabeth and her government took a lively interest in the exploration and settlement of North America. Meanwhile English navigators had been trying to solve the question, namely, the existence of a northwest passage to Asia from the British Isles. Martin Frobisher, early in June, 1576, sailed with three vessels, he touched at Greenland, coasted up the shores of Labrador and entered a strait or inlet above the entrance to Hudson's Bay, which bears his name.

Impenetrable pack-ice, the loss of some of his men and the growing discontent of others caused him to return to England. The fact that gold had been found, soon got noised abroad, and many persons eagerly offered money to Frobisher to make another voyage to those high latitudes. In May, 1577, he sailed in a vessel of the royal navy, and two other vessels. Frobisher had demonstrated the impossibility of passing the polar ice fields, and so no explorations were made. As very little gold was found, he returned to England. In May, 1578, he sailed on another expedition, instructed to find genuine gold ore, or for a north-

west passage, he discovered neither and returned to England.

This brave leader won the honors of a discoverer and the fame of having been the first European who had penetrated so far toward the Arctic Circle. Frobisher's Inlet being under the sixty-third degree north latitude.

Francis Drake, another Devonshire man, about this time circumnavigated the globe, a feat performed by Magellan, half a century before. Drake had suffered much from the Spaniards, and vowed vengeance. Under sanction of the Queen, with five vessels he sailed from Plymouth, November, 1577, and touching at Brazil, and other places down the east coast of South America, he passed through the straits of Magellan, early in September, 1578. Then he ran up the western coast, plundering the Spanish settlements in Chili and Peru, capturing a royal Spanish galleon, heavily loaded with treasure, and taking possession of California in the name of the Queen. Burdened with gold and silver, and his revenge fully satisfied, Drake determined to return home. Fearing to meet a superior force in the ocean, he resolved to seek a passage around the northern shores of America. Repelled by severe cold, he sailed across the Pacific and Indian Oceans, doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and arrived at Plymouth late in September, 1579, having discovered points on the western coasts of our country as far north as Washington, above the Columbia River. He was then only between thirty and forty years of age.

After that the exploits of Drake on the sea were marvellous. They were against the Spaniards, whom he hated intensely. Within the space of a year he captured and plundered Cartagena, in South America, and several other towns in that region; burned Forts Antonio and St. Augustine, ravaged places in the West Indies, and running up the coasts of Florida, Georgia and the Carolinas, he visited Roanoke Island, and bore away from it, to England, a famishing colony which Raleigh had planted there. On another occasion he

burned one hundred Spanish vessels in the harbor of Cadiz. Although he is honored for his enterprise and the glory he won for England, and is regarded as the founder of the Royal Navy, Sir Francis Drake was only a daring pirate on a large and legalized scale.

In 1594, the Spanish King threatened England with a great show of power. Drake entered the service of his sovereign, and with Admiral Hawkins, he sailed for America in 1595, with twenty-six vessels. A divided command worked mischievously. Hawkins died at Porto Rico, partly from the effects of a wound and partly from chagrin, because of reverses. Drake soon afterward achieved great triumphs. He destroyed several Spanish towns; but a fatal fever seized him late in the year. It was aggravated by mental agitation on account of a defeat of his forces, and he died in December. The gallant sailor was honored by a sailor's funeral. He was buried at sea in sight of Puerto Bello.

While Drake was plundering Spanish settlements, the minds of the British Queen and many of her leading subjects were directed to the more beneficial object of founding colonies in the region of North America, discovered by Cabot. With this was mingled a thirst for gold which was believed to exist in abundance somewhere in those regions. These desires had assumed a tangible shape and had been stimulated into action by Raleigh, on his return from the continent; and his half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, obtained a patent from the Queen, which authorized him to explore and hold any lands unoccupied by Christian powers. That was in the year 1578. He did not believe there was much gold in the high latitudes, but the fisheries off Newfoundland, to which more than four hundred vessels repaired annually, turned his thoughts to a project of planting a colony there; and in this scheme Raleigh acquiesced.

Walter Raleigh was one of the most illustrious of the English adventurers of his time. He was only twenty-six years of age at this time, and had un-

bounded ambition. He had lately returned from Ireland, where he had put down a rebellion. Meeting the Queen one day while she was walking with two of her maids of honor, he took from his shoulders his rich velvet mantle, and spread it over a wet spot in the path for her to walk upon. Because of this delicate gallantry, he was admitted to court where he obtained the Queen's special favor.

Gilbert's patent, bound him to pay to the crown one fifth of all gold and silver which the countries he might discover and colonize should produce. The laws were to be in accordance with the statutes and policy of England, and he was made civil and criminal legislator. It also guaranteed to his followers the civil rights of Englishmen. It was to extend six years, during which time no one was permitted to establish a settlement within two hundred leagues of any spot which these adventurers might occupy. At his own expense he fitted out a squadron and sailed for America, late in 1579. Most of his company was utterly unfit to become founders of a state, for most of them were idlers and some were dissolute. It is said by some that Raleigh sailed with him. Heavy storms or Spanish war vessels destroyed one of his ships, and compelled the remainder to turn back, and for four years the enterprise was held in abeyance. Raleigh and his friends at end of that time, fitted out another small squadron, for Gilbert was impoverished. It sailed under command of Gilbert, June, 1583, accompanied by a learned Hungarian. They reached Newfoundland in August, and in the harbor of St. Johns, in the presence of hundreds of fishermen, took possession of the country in the name of Queen Elizabeth. Continued storms and disasters compelled them to return to England, and on the homeward voyage the expedition was lost, including Gilbert, with the exception of one vessel that escaped the tempests and returned to England with tidings of disaster.

Misfortune seemed to stimulate Raleigh, he obtained a charter from the

Queen in all respects the same as Gilbert's. It constituted him Lord Proprietor of all countries between Delaware Bay and the mouth of the Santee River, in South Carolina. Quick in execution of his projects, two ships were made ready for sea before June, 1584, well equipped with men and provisions. Arthur Barlow was placed in chief command, assisted by Philip Amidas, of French descent, but a native of England. They were directed to explore the coast between the parallels named, and choose a place for settlement. They took the southern course and approached the coast in the latitude of Florida. They sailed up the coast, explored Roanoke Island and Pamlico and Albermarle Sounds. The Indians they found were gentle and friendly. On Roanoke Island the Englishmen were received with great hospitality. To the feelings of the English everything was charming, magnificent trees, draped with vines clustered with growing grapes, and the forest swarmed with birds. They now departed for England, accompanied by two of the native chiefs.

The glowing description of the region delighted Raleigh and his sovereign, and Elizabeth, as a memorial of the splendid domain that had been added to the realm, during the reign of a virgin queen, named the country *Virginia*.

Raleigh now took measures for sending out a colony to people his American domain. On the 9th of April, 1585, he saw a fleet of seven ships sail out of Plymouth harbor with one hundred and eighty colonists, and a full compliment of seamen, for the coast of Virginia. Sir Richard Grenville, one of the most gallant men of the times, was in command of the squadron, and Ralph Lane, a soldier, was sent as governor of the colony, with Amidas as assistant. They were accompanied by Thomas Cavendish, who, the next year followed the path of Drake around the world; by a competent painter to delineate men and things in America, and by Thomas Harriot, an eminent mathematician and astronomer, who went as his-

torian and naturalist of the expedition.

The choice of Grenville as commander was unfortunate. He was more intent on plunder than on colonization. Sailing over the southern route, he cruised among the West India Islands, capturing Spanish vessels, and so infusing the colonists with a spirit quite the reverse of that of peaceful settlers. They did not reach the American coast until late in June, when the vessels came near being wrecked on a point of land which, from that circumstance, they named Cape Fear. Sailing up the coast they finally landed on Roanoke Island, with one of the Indian chiefs (named Manteo), who returned with them.

Harriot, the historian remained there a year, making drawings and taking observations of everything of interest. He labored hard to restrain the cupidity of the colonists, who were more intent upon winning gold and plunder, than tilling the soil. For eight days they explored the country, and were received hospitably everywhere. At an Indian village a silver cup was stolen from the English and was not immediately returned. Grenville ordered the whole town to be burned, and the standing corn around it destroyed. This enkindled in the savage mind revenge, furious and destructive, which could not be quenched. Unsuspicious of the consequences of his act, the commander left the colonists and returned to England.

Lane was delighted with the country, and in a letter he sent home by Grenville, he wrote: "The continent is of a huge and unknown greatness. The climate is so wholesome that we have not one sick since we have touched the land."

Harriot was a man of keen observation, he perceived that the way to have the country permanently settled, was to treat the natives kindly as friends and neighbors, and he tried to quench the fires of revenge, which the conduct of Grenville had enkindled. The Indians regarded the persons of the English with reverence and awe. The colonists were never sick and had no

women with them, so the natives imagined that they were not born of woman and were therefore immortal.

Had the colonists been as wise and good as Harriot, all might have been well. But they were greedy for gold. The Indians, believing that more Englishmen were coming to take their lands, they yearned to exterminate the intruders.

Lane, impressed with the belief of a wide-spread conspiracy to destroy his colony, prepared to strike the first blow. He invited several of the principal chiefs to a conference. At a preconcerted signal, Lane and his followers fell upon the Indians and murdered them. Thenceforth each party stood on the defensive, and very soon the condition of the English became desperate. Their provisions were exhausted; no ships came from England with supplies, and no food could be obtained from the Indians. Only the woods and waters offered them a precarious subsistence, and they were on the verge of despair, when they saw, one day, the joyful apparition of white sails coming in from the sea. It was the fleet of Sir Francis Drake, who looked upon the colonists that he might report their condition to his friend Raleigh. He offered them aid and encouragement, but they were so thoroughly despondent that they begged and received permission to return to England in the Baronet's ships.

Whilst they were in Virginia, Lane and his associates had acquired a taste for smoking tobacco, a habit which prevailed among the natives; and they were the first persons who carried the plant to England. Raleigh adopted and encouraged its use in England, and very soon the habit became so widespread that the demand exceeded the supply. It became the staple product of Virginia and a bond of union between England and some of her American colonies, as well as a source of much revenue.

Drake's ships had scarcely left the coast when a vessel appeared with supplies for the fugitive colonists. Finding the post abandoned the ships re-

turned to England; and a fortnight after it left Roanoke, Sir Richard Greenville arrived with three well furnished ships, and searched in vain for the settlers. Unwilling to give up possession of the country, he left fifteen men there to protect the rights of England, and then he, too, returned home.

Raleigh was not dismayed by these mishaps. Lane, whose failure as a leader was conspicuous, gave a gloomy account of the country, but the report of Harriot was so encouraging, that Raleigh found very little difficulty in gathering another colony, and of better materials. They were not gold seekers, but agriculturists and artisans, with their wives and children, who consented to become permanent settlers in America.

In April, 1587, a squadron of three ships, fitted out at Raleigh's expense, under command of John White, sailed for Chesapeake Bay. White went first to Roanoke and proceeded no further. He arrived there in July, he found the little fort built by Lane broken down, and a heap of human bones that told the sad fate of Greenville's "Protectors of the Rights of England."

The new colonists wisely resolved to cultivate the friendship of the Indians. Manteo, who lived on Croatan Island, invited them to make their abode on his domain, when White took the opportunity to have the chief receive the rights of Christian baptism, by the command of Raleigh, and to bestow on him the order of a feudal baron as "Lord of Roanoke." This was the first and last peerage ever created on the soil of our Republic.

For a time matters went on smoothly, when an unlucky mistake of the English in attacking friendly Indians produced bad blood. At about the same time it became necessary for the ships to return to England for supplies. White was persuaded to go with them that he might hasten their return. He left behind him eighty-nine men, seventeen women and two children. Among these was Eleanor Dare, wife of one of his assistants, and his daughter, who had given birth since her arrival to a

daughter, to whom they gave the name of Virginia—Virginia Dare, the first white child of English parents born on American soil. On his way back, White touched Ireland, where he left some potato plants, the first ever seen in Europe.

Raleigh, by great exertions, sent White back in two ships, in April, 1588. Instead of going straight to Virginia, he chased Spanish ships in search of plunder. Both his vessels were so much injured that he was compelled to take them back to England, and it was not until 1590 that he sailed for the colony. He found Roanoke desolate. An inscription on the bark of a tree seemed that they had gone to Croatan.

White searched no further, but hastened back to England with the sad tidings of the uncertain fate of the colonists.

Raleigh's means were now exhausted. He formed a company of merchants and adventurers under his charter, to whom he assigned a portion of his rights. They did nothing but carry on a petty trade with Virginia for a while, and at the time of Queen Elizabeth's death, in 1603, there was not a single Englishman settled in all America.

Raleigh, it is said, sent persons at five different times, at his own expense, to search for the lost colonists, but no trace of them could be found.

Raleigh, when at the age of thirty-seven, decided to abandon the scheme for colonizing Virginia, proceeded to perform other services, which alone would have made his name immortal. He did much toward the destruction of the Spanish Armada; discovered the large, rich and beautiful empire of Guiana, in South America, and other notable deeds for the glory of England.

When Queen Elizabeth died, in 1603, the sun of his glory went down. King James stripped him of all his preferences, he was soon afterward arrested on a false charge of conspiracy, and on conviction without proof was condemned to death. Reprieved, he was sent to prison, where he was confined

many years, during which time he wrote his "History of the World." In 1615, the King, wanting his services to search for gold in Guiana, released him from prison, on condition that he would go there, but did not pardon him. Raleigh was then sixty-three years of age, and an invalid. He embarked the whole of his wife's fortune and his own in the expedition, which was a failure, and he returned to England in the summer of 1618, a wreck in fortune, health, reputation and spirits. Raleigh was recommitted to prison, the execution of the unjust sentence of fifteen years before pronounced, and soon afterward caused to be beheaded. "This is a sharp medicine, but a cure for all diseases," said Raleigh, on the scaffold, as he felt the keen edge of the axe and handed it to the executioner.

The inhabitants of North Carolina, on whose shores the great adventurer had made his attempts at settlement, showed their sense of justice by giving to their capital the name of *Raleigh*.

Bartholomew Gosnold, a friend of Raleigh's, and who had made a voyage to America, and who, like Raleigh, had not lost faith in the colonization and settlement of North America, when offered the command of an expedition to plant a settlement in America, on the advice of his friend Raleigh, accepted it, and on the 26th of April, 1602, sailed in a small vessel, with twenty colonists and eight mariners, on a direct track, and arrived on the coast of America, near Nahant, in Massachusetts Bay, in just eighteen days after his departure from England. Sailing southward, discovered a great sandy point, which he named Cape Cod, because of the immense number of cod-fishes seen near its shores, and landed there with four men. It was the first time an Englishman had landed on the soil of New England.

Doubling the Cape, he passed around the promontory of Bayhead, which he named Dover Cliff, and entered Buzzard's Bay, where he found a group of attractive islands. He named the westernmost, Elizabeth, the name of his Queen, and the whole group now bear

that name. They landed on Elizabeth Island, now known by its Indian name of Cattyhunk. Vegetation was luxuriant, and small fruits were in abundance, so they resolved to plant a little colony there, and built a rude stone house and fort.

The colonists now thought the Indians unfriendly, they did not know what the winter might be, and losing their courage, they abandoned their little paradise of beauty, and in less than four months were back home in England. Had their courage held out they would have had the honor of making the first permanent English settlement in America.

Early in April, 1603, an expedition under Martin Pring, another friend of Raleigh, sailed, and reached the American coast, and entered Penobscot Bay early in June. They went up the Penobscot River some distance, and then, sailing along the coast, they entered the mouths of the Saco, Kennebunk and Piscataqua Rivers, on the coast of Maine.

Sailing southward, they went to the region where Gosnold had stopped, and landed on a large island, abounding with grapes, which they named Martin's Vineyard, now Martha's Vineyard. They then returned to England after an absence of six months.

In March, 1605, George Weymouth, another friend of Raleigh, lead an expedition which took the shorter track, but on account of storms was six weeks making the journey, and arrived off the coast of Nantucket. Sailing northward, he entered Penobscot Bay. While there he kidnapped several Indians and returned with them to England. Three of them were in the family of the Governor of Plymouth, where they acquired considerable knowledge of the English language. This kidnapping left on the shores of New England the seeds of much future trouble.

All doubts respecting the commercial value of every part of the American coast, from Florida to Newfoundland, had now vanished from the English mind, and King James was petitioned

to charter an organization to colonize the shores of this Western World. Moved by these considerations, he issued letters patent on the 20th of April, 1606.

There were two companies formed, one called the "London Company," and the other called the "Plymouth Company." They were granted the territory between the thirty-fourth and the forty-fifth parallels of north latitude, and any islands within one hundred miles of the shore. The vast domain was divided into two districts, called, respectively, North and South Virginia, the line of separation being on the parallel of about the present city of New York.

Now dawned the bright era, when English colonies were permanently planted in America. We will tell the story of their wonderful growth in a latter part of this work.

Among the earliest of the new French adventurers was the Marquis de la Roche, a wealthy nobleman, who gathered together a company from the prisons of France wherewith to found a colony in America. He sailed with a single ship in the spring of 1598, and landed on Sable Island, in the Atlantic Ocean, ninety miles southeast of Nova Scotia, where he left forty men and returned to France for supplies. Before he was ready to go back he sickened and died, and the poor emigrants had no tidings from home or the rest of the world for seven years. Then a vessel was sent for them, but only twelve survived.

Samuel Champlain, of the French navy, a man of noble lineage, and a favorite of the French King, under a charter, granted to the Governor of Dieppe, was commissioned lieutenant-general of Canada. On the 15th of March, 1603, with a single vessel, commanded by Pont-Greve, a skillful mariner, whose father had been a friend of Cartier, he embarked for New France. They reached the St. Lawrence in May, and anchored near the site of Quebec, Pont-Greve, with five men, went up that stream in a canoe to the rapids of La Chine, above Montreal. Turning

back, on reaching the ship, he gave Champlain a minute account of all he saw. Champlain had held intercourse with the savages, had found them friendly, and was pleased with all he had observed. They returned to France in the early autumn.

When the voyagers returned, they found the Governor of Dieppe dead, and the concession transferred to Pierre de Gast, the Sieur de Monts, a wealthy Huguenot, who had received the commission of Viceroy, with full power for settlement and rule over six degrees of latitude in America, extending from that of Cape May to the parallel of Quebec. That region was named in the charter, L'Acadie, a corruption of the Greek Arcadia. A new arrangement was made with Champlain, and early in March, 1604, De Monts, with his bosom friend Pontrincourt and Pont-Greve as his lieutenants, and Champlain as the pilot, sailed from France with four vessels well-manned, and a large company of Protestant and Roman Catholic emigrants. Among the latter were several Jesuits. They reached the St. Lawrence in April, when they found the river ice-bound and the weather so cold that the Viceroy determined to plant his settlement further to the southward. They passed around Cape Breton and Nova Scotia into the Bay of Fundy, and on the northern shore of the peninsula they anchored in a fine harbor environed by hills and meadows, early in May. Pontrincourt was so charmed with the appearance of the country that De Monts allowed him to remain there with some of the emigrants. He gave him a grant of the region, which was confirmed by the King, and Pontrincourt named the place where he landed Port Royal. It is now Annapolis, in Nova Scotia. De Monts passed over to Passamaquoddy Bay, and on an island, near the mouth of the St. Croix River, landed, built a fort, and there passed a severe winter. Half of them were dead in the spring, when the survivors explored westward as far as Cape Cod, and returned to Port Royal, where they joined Pontrincourt's col-

ony. Early in the autumn they returned to France, leaving Champlain and Pont-Greve to make further exploration. They went to the southwest as far as Cape Cod, but were driven to their vessels by the Indians, and in 1607, returned to France. In 1613, Port Royal was plundered and laid in ashes by the English, who considered the French as intruders on the domain of North Virginia.

In 1608, Champlain sailed up the St. Lawrence River to the St. Charles, and entering that river, on the banks of which he landed at the foot of a rocky promontory, and laid the foundation of the city of Quebec. That name is an Indian word, signifying "the narrows," and is pronounced Kebec. That was the first permanent French settlement planted in America.

Champlain regarded the Iroquois in northern New York as his enemies, and allied himself with the Hurons, who were the enemies of the Iroquois. In the summer of 1609, he explored up the Sorel or Richlieu River to the Falls of Chambly, where he left his boat and crew, and with only two men pushed on in a canoe until he discovered a great lake between two distant mountain ranges—the Green Mountains and the Adirondacks. He gave his name to this beautiful sheet of water.

In 1612, Champlain, having returned from France with the commission of Lieutenant-governor of the colony, engaged in vigorous wars and explorations. In 1615, he invited some Jesuit Fathers to the St. Lawrence, who accompanied him in expeditions of discovery, extending up the Ottawa River and westward to Lake Huron. Turning eastward they traversed the wilderness to Lake Ontario, and exploring that magnificent sheet of water its whole length, and the St. Lawrence to a point below Montreal, they returned to France.

In 1620, he returned to Canada with the authority of governor, and bringing with him his family and other emigrants and their families. He had seen that an alliance with the Indians was essential to the building up of a per-

manent empire, and the influence which the Jesuit Fathers had on their minds. A college was established at Quebec, for the instruction of the children of the Huron's, in civilized modes of living, the French language and the Roman Catholic religion.

So was wisely laid, by Samuel Champlain, the foundation of the French Empire in America; its chief source of strength being its firm alliance with the Indians. So were secured those alliances in emergencies, between the French and Indians in America, which frequently gave the English colonies much and serious trouble.

Early in the year 1607, Henry Hudson, a famous navigator and an expert pilot, was employed by some London merchants to discover a polar sea passage, around northern Europe. Hudson sailed on the first of May, 1607. The vessel in which Hudson sailed was a small one, manned only by ten men and a boy. He went up the eastern coast of Greenland and discovered the island of Spitzbergen, nothing more, for a solid ice barrier compelled him to turn back. He returned to England in September. His employers fitted out another expedition, which sailed late in April, 1608. Again the impenetrable ice-pack compelled him to turn back. His employers were now disheartened and gave up the enterprise. Hudson now obtained employment with the Dutch East India Company, and they fitted out for him a small vessel, named the "Half-Moon," of ninety tons, to go in search for them of this northern passage around Europe. He sailed for Nova Scotia in April, 1609.

After fighting the ice-pack on the parallel of Spitzbergen, until all hope of conquest vanished, Hudson was compelled the third time to turn back. He determined not to go without some fruit to Holland, so he sailed around the southern shores of Greenland into the track of the searchers after a north-west passage. Again the ice-pack foiled him, and he sailed southward until, at the middle of July, he discovered the American continent off the

coast of Maine. Hudson now sailed southward as far as the Capes of Virginia. Then he sailed up the coast, discovered Delaware Bay, and entered the harbor of New York, early in September.

Northward from his anchorage, after his vessel had entered New York Bay, Hudson saw a broad stream which the Indians told him came from beyond the pale blue mountain ranges in the distance. He believed it was a strait through which he might pass into the Indian Ocean; so he sailed up the stream a few miles and anchored.

The *Half-Moon* went leisurely up the river, anchoring here and there, and the commander held intercourse with the Indians, sometimes friendly, sometimes hostile. When he passed the great mountains he had seen in the distance, and found the water freshening, he was satisfied that he was not in a passage to India. It was a beautiful river, flowing down from more lofty hills three hundred miles from the sea, and called *Mahicannituck* by the natives. The Dutch afterwards called it the Mauritius, and the English gave it the name of Hudson's River.

Hudson went up the stream as far as Albany. Then he sailed leisurely back, everywhere charmed with the beauty and grandeur of the scenery and apparent fertility of the soil. He had

discovered one of the richest portions of America.

After taking possession of the whole domain he had discovered in the name of the States-General of Holland, he sailed for England.

This led to the commercial ventures between Holland and the Hudson River, which immediately followed, and resulted in the planting of the City of New Amsterdam (now New York), at the mouth of the latter, and New Orange (now Albany), near the head of its navigable waters. These were the germs of the commonwealth of New Netherland, the domain of which is known as the State of New York.

Hudson was the last of the discoverers who revealed the Atlantic coast of the American continent to Europe. His fate may be told in a few words. He sailed from England in the spring of 1610, on his fourth voyage in a search of a polar ocean passage, this time to the northwest. He discovered far up North America, the bay that bears his name, and intended to winter there, but a majority of his crew were mutinous and compelled him to sail homeward. On the way, he, his son, and seven of his men who had remained faithful to him were seized, pinioned, placed in an open boat and abandoned on the icy sea, where, of course, they soon perished.

SECOND PERIOD

SETTLEMENTS

VIRGINIA.

James the First of England, in 1603, was the monarch who granted charters to the London and Plymouth Companies, authorizing them to make settlement in America.

The Plymouth Company, who were to control North Virginia, were first in the field of adventure. There was no lack of candidates, when the company called for emigrants.

The charter of each company was the same. The defined boundaries of each domain was as follows: that of the London Company, between the thirty-fourth and the thirty-eighth degree of north latitude, and that of the Plymouth Company, between the forty-first and forty-fifth degrees, leaving three degrees of space between North and South Virginia, on a breadth of one hundred miles of which, in the centre, neither party should be allowed to make settlements.

The idea of the monarch, was to give the colonists nothing but the bare territory and the privilege of peopling and defending it. The King had absolute authority, and control of all appointments. Jurisdiction under him was given to a small body of men residing in England, known as "The Council of Virginia," the local administration was entrusted to a council in the colony, appointed by the one at home, the term of office of both members depending upon the King. The colonists were accorded the privilege of perpetual English citizenship for themselves and their children. The doctrine and rituals of the Church of England was the established religion, and no dissent allowed.

At the beginning of the summer of 1607, the Plymouth Company sent a hundred emigrants, in three small ves-

sels, under George Popham, one of their members, as governor, to America. They landed on a sterile spot near the mouth of the Kennebec River, on the coast of Maine, late in August. They spent a fearful winter, and in the spring, when a ship arrived with supplies, the memories of their confinement and hardships and the loss of the governor by death, had thoroughly discouraged them, and they returned home to England.

The London Company, in December, 1606, sent Captain Christopher Newport with three small vessels and one hundred and five emigrants with orders to land on Roanoke Island, where Raleigh's colony had perished twenty years before. Many of the colonists, like Bartholomew Gosnold, Captain John Smith, George Percy, brother to the Duke of Northumberland, and Edward Maria Wingfield, were men of energy and steady habits. But of the remainder there was only twelve laborers and a few mechanics. The King had placed the names of the councillors for the Virginia government in a sealed box, with orders not to open it until the colonists should have landed and prepared to form a settlement.

They took the southern route, and were four months making the voyage. Disputes arose, chiefly owing to the imperious manner and outspoken opinions of Captain John Smith, who possessed more energy and wisdom than any man among them. Although he was then only twenty-nine years of age.

Smith was accused by Wingfield, who was a member of the London Company, of conspiring to murder the council, whoever they might be, usurp the government, and make himself King of Virginia. He was imprisoned during the remainder of the voyage, which was very tedious.

Fierce storms drove them far beyond Roanoke Island into Chesapeake Bay, the headlands of which they named in honor of the Prince of Wales and his next oldest brother, Cape Henry and Cape Charles.

They sailed across the mouth of the Chesapeake Bay and landed upon a point well wooded and fragrant with flowers, and named it Point Comfort. There Fortress Monroe now stands. The sealed box was now opened and the company were astonished to find the name of Captain Smith amongst those of the seven councillors. Yet he was not then released. They sailed up a broad river that the Indians called Powhatan, for forty or fifty miles, and chose a place for settlement on an island close by the northern shore of the river. In honor of their King they named the river James, and choosing Wingfield to preside over the council, they resolved to call the island and the seat of government *Jamestown*. Here was laid the first foundation for a dwelling on that charming spot where the first permanent English settlement in America was planted.

The English were told that far up the river lived Powhatan, the emperor of several confederated tribes. Newport, Smith and twenty others went up the stream to discover its head and to visit this chief. They followed its winding course to the falls where Richmond now stands, and were received kindly by Powhatan. Smith, before going on this expedition, had advised Wingfield to build a fort, for he knew that the idle and dissolute men of the company would soon make trouble for the colony.

On his return he found that his fears had been realized. The Indians had made an attack upon the settlers, wounding several and killing a boy. The president then consented to the building of a stockade.

Newport now prepared to return to England with the ships. Smith had not been allowed to take his seat in the council, for he had not been tried, nor had the charges against him been withdrawn. The jealous Wingfield pro-

posed that he should return with Newport, wishing to get rid of him, and so avoid the disgrace of a trial. The indignant soldier rejected the proposal with scorn, and demanded an immediate trial. Smith's innocence was plain to his companions, and his services were so much needed that they demanded his release. Wingfield withdrew his charges and Smith took his seat in the council, when it was adjudged by that body that the president should pay him £200 damages for false imprisonment. All the property Wingfield had with him was seized to pay this award, when Smith generously "returned it to the store for the general use of the colony." From that time Captain Smith was the ruling spirit in Virginia.

Newport departed for England for more emigrants and supplies, at the middle of June. The outlook for the colony was now not very bright. Much of their food had been spoiled during the long voyage, and the hostile Indians withheld supplies. As one of the colonists wrote, "had we been as free from all sins as from gluttony and drunkenness, we might have been canonized as saints." Most of the emigrants were too idle or too ignorant to till the soil. Within a short time after Newport had left them, hardly ten of them were able to stand through fevers and dysentery, brought by the summer heat, which produced malaria from the swamps. Before the beginning of Autumn one-half of the emigrants were dead. Among the victims was Gosnold, a man of great worth, to whose example the settlers were indebted for the little order that prevailed among them. The survivors discovered that during their distress, the avaricious and unscrupulous Wingfield was living on choice stores and was preparing to abandon the settlement and escape to the West Indies. He was deprived of his office, and Captain John Ratcliffe, a man much weaker in mind and equally wicked, was put in his place. The settlers soon perceived their mistake and removing Ratcliffe, they placed the reins of government in the

hands of Captain Smith. This event saved the colony from ruin. Hopeful, cheerful, energetic, honest, full of invention and equal to any emergency, Smith soon brought order out of confusion; inspired the Indians with awe and compelled them to bring him food. Wild fowl, returning from the north, swarmed on the waters in October, and at the beginning of November, an abundant crop of Indian corn had been gathered by the savages, who shared it with their dependent white neighbors.

The London Company had given special instructions to the settlers to explore every considerable stream they should find flowing from the northwest, hoping so to discover a passage to the Indian Ocean and coveted Cathay. Smith did not share the ignorance of his employers, but he gladly made their instructions his warrant for exploring the surrounding country. He sailed up the Chickahominy in an open boat as far as the shallow waters, and continued his journey, with two companions and one guide, far into the woods in search of game. The savages, under Opechancanough, the King of Pamunky, slew his two companions and captured Smith. He was now conducted from village to village in great state, for the Indians considered him a superior being, where the women and children stared at him in mute astonishment. Then they conducted him into the presence of the Emperor Powhatan, at a place now known as Shelly, on the banks of the York River, in Gloucester county, Virginia, and asked him to decide the fate of the prisoner. There Smith obtained permission to send a letter to Jamestown, in which he informed the settlers of his condition, and directed them to impress the messenger with as much fear of the English as possible. Smith was finally brought before a council of full two hundred warriors. By that council he was doomed to die. Two huge stones were brought before the emperor, to which the prisoner was dragged and his head laid upon them, whilst two big savages stood by with clubs ready to beat out his brains. Matoa, or Poca-

hontas, a young daughter of the emperor, begged for the life of the Captain, but in vain, when, just as the clubs were uplifted, she darted from her father's knee, clasped the prisoner's head with her arms and laid her own head upon his. The emperor yielded to the maid, and consented to spare the life of the captive. He did more; he released Captain Smith, sent him with an escort of a dozen men to Jamestown, and he and his people promised to be fast friends of the English. But for the energy and wisdom of Captain Smith and the tender compassion of an Indian maiden, the settlers at Jamestown would have all been murdered or dispersed.

On his return, Smith found the stronger members of the colony, which had been reduced to forty persons, on the point of abandoning the place. By his personal courage he compelled them to stay, and so, again he saved the colony from ruin. These men now hated him with an intensity that sought his destruction.

The settlers were now engaged in building a house for the President of the Council, and Smith ordered the rebuilding of the church, which had been burned.

Newport returned to Jamestown early in 1608, with two vessels. But he brought no better materials for a colony than before. Instead of needed mechanics and farmers with families, he brought chiefly idle "gentlemen," some of them vicious. There were one hundred and twenty of them and there was scarcely a useful man among them. There were several unskilled goldsmiths, whose ignorance caused a most destructive gold-fever to prevail. They pronounced some glittering yellow earth near Jamestown to be gold, and for a while there was "no talk, no hope, no work, but dig gold, refine gold, load gold." Newport loaded his vessel with this worthless earth, and returned to England with the impression that he was an immensely rich man. He was soon undeceived.

Captain Smith implored the settlers to plant and sow, that they might have

plenty without the aid of the Indians, who, chiefly through Pocahontas, were sending them supplies. But they would not listen, and early in the summer of that year, he turned from Jamestown in disgust, and with a few more sensible men he went in an open boat to explore the Chesapeake Bay and its numerous tributaries.

In three months, he made two voyages. During the first he went up the Potomac River to the Falls near Georgetown, and up the Rappahannock to the Falls near Fredericksburg, and then returned to Jamestown. During the second voyage he went up the Patapsco to the site of Baltimore and up the narrower part of the Chesapeake Bay into the Susquehanna River, a short distance above Havre-de-Grace, where he heard of the powerful Iroquois Confederacy in the present State of New York. In these two voyages, Smith not only explored the shores of the great waters, but penetrated into the country, made friendly alliances with several chiefs, and smoothed the way for future settlements on the borders of the noble Chesapeake. He had voyaged about three thousand miles in an open boat and made a map of the region explored, remarkable for its accuracy, which is preserved in London.

When Captain Smith returned to Jamestown, early in September, he found the colony again in confusion. His advent was hailed with delight, and three days after his return he was chosen President of the Council. He now organized labor and compelled the performance of the same. About this time Newport arrived with two ships, bearing supplies and seventy emigrants. There were two women, the first of European blood to arrive in the colony. The men were no better than the other emigrants. The London Corporation had sent to the settlers a message, saying, "Unless you shall send us sufficient commodities to pay for the voyage (£2000); unless you shall send us a lump of gold, the product of Virginia, assurance of having found a passage to the South Sea (Pacific Ocean), and also one of the last colony of Roanoke,

you shall be left in Virginia as banished men." To this threat Smith replied with spirit, showing the absurdity of their demand and entreating them to send mechanics and husbandmen.

This threat assisted the president in enforcing rules for labor. He demanded six hours work from every able-bodied man. "He who will not work shall not eat," he said. Very soon the little village showed signs of an orderly community.

The London Company obtained a new charter in May, 1609, by which the boundaries of their domain was enlarged. Lord De la Ware was made Governor and Captain-general for life. In June, more than five hundred emigrants were sent out under command of Captain Newport. These emigrants were composed of some of the worst classes in England. The only things brought by the fleet that were valuable to the settlement were horses, swine, goats and sheep, and domestic fowls. To these were added, two years later, one hundred cows and other cattle.

In the absence of the new governor, anarchy menaced the colony, but Smith, with his usual energy, asserted his authority, and devised new expeditions that the vicious might be employed, and saved the settlement from ruin. In the autumn an accidental explosion of gunpowder so wounded Smith that he was compelled to go to England for surgical aid, and never returned to Virginia.

It was more than six months after the departure of Captain Smith, before three commissioners arrived who were to represent the governor. Meanwhile, the settlers, left almost without restraint, had indulged in every irregularity of life, and their provisions were soon exhausted. They had, by cruelty, made the Indians hostile, who had withheld food from them. Finally the Indians devised a plan to exterminate the whole body of the intruders. It was frustrated by Pocahontas, who always proved to be the friend of the settlers. When she heard the plot, she hastened to Jamestown, and revealing

the conspiracy to Percy, put the English on their guard.

Famine came with its horrors and transformed civilized Englishmen into cannibals. They fed on the Indians they slew, and sometimes on their own companions who had died from hunger. When the commissioners arrived in the spring of 1610, of the four hundred and ninety persons whom Smith left in Virginia, only sixty remained alive. Many a time, during that winter and spring, which was ever afterward referred to as "the starving time," did they lament the folly in not following the advice of Captain Smith to till the soil.

Brave, honest and true, Captain Smith won the honor of being the first planter of the Saxon race, on the soil of the United States, and is entitled to the endearing name of *Father of Virginia*.

The commissioners, on their arrival at the settlement, saw, instead of a prosperous colony, sixty starving men in the depths of despair. They saw no other way to save their lives than to abandon the settlement, sail to Newfoundland, and distribute the settlers among the English fishermen there.

They were about to embark, when the governor, Lord De la Ware, arrived with provisions and emigrants, and saved the colony.

The governor, a pious, prudent, generous and humane man, won the respect of the colonists. He caused the church to be rebuilt, the dwellings to be improved and many more acres cultivated. The health of the governor now failed and he returned to England in the spring of 1611, leaving Percy in charge.

Sir Thomas Dale, a brave soldier, now arrived with supplies and assumed the reins of government and ruled under martial law both the church and state. At the close of summer, Sir Thomas Gates, with six well furnished ships and three hundred emigrants, arrived. These emigrants were a much better class than any who had as yet appeared in Virginia. The greater portion were sober and industrious, and

they had a good influence on the earlier settlers. Gates now assumed the governorship, and Dale went up the river and planted settlements at the mouth of the Appomattox River (now Bermuda Hundred) and at the Falls (now Richmond).

Another charter was now obtained from the Company, which allowed the powers of the association to be distributed in a democratic manner among all of the members, who met in mass for deliberation and legislation. The most important feature affecting the welfare of the settlement was that which allowed every man to cultivate a few acres of land for his own sole use and benefit. Before that time the land was tilled in common, and the industrious provided food for the lazy. An ample supply of provisions for all was easily obtained, and the community system was abandoned. Although no political privileges were granted by the new charter, the settlers were contented.

Ever since the departure of Captain Smith, Powhatan had evinced hostility to the settlers, and the powerful Chickahomnies, their nearest neighbors, sympathized with him and allowed no food to be carried to Jamestown. Provisions there became scarce, and Captain Argall, a sort of buccaneer, who was then in Virginia, was sent with a foraging expedition up the York and James Rivers. He bribed an Indian with the gift of a copper kettle, when near the residence of Powhatan, to entice Pocahontas on board his vessel, where he detained her a prisoner, expecting to get a large quantity of corn from her father as a ransom for his daughter, and to recover some arms and implements of labor which had been stolen by the Indians. The emperor rejected the proposition of ransom with scorn, and refused to hold any intercourse with the pirate, but declaring to the authorities at Jamestown, that if his daughter should be released, he would forget the injury and be a friend to the English. They would not trust his word, and the maiden was taken to Jamestown and detained

there several months, but was always treated with respectful consideration. The affair was assuming a serious aspect, when love settled the difficulty. Among the young men of rank and education, at Jamestown, was John Rolfe, of an excellent English family, who became enamored of Pocahontas, she reciprocated his passion, and they agreed to be wedded. He taught her the Christian religion, she proved to be an apt scholar and was soon baptized with the name of Rebecca. She was the first Christian Indian in Virginia.

They were married in April, 1613. Her father's consent to her marriage had been easily obtained, and he sent his brother Opachisco to give away his daughter according to the Christian ritual, for he would not trust himself with the English at Jamestown.

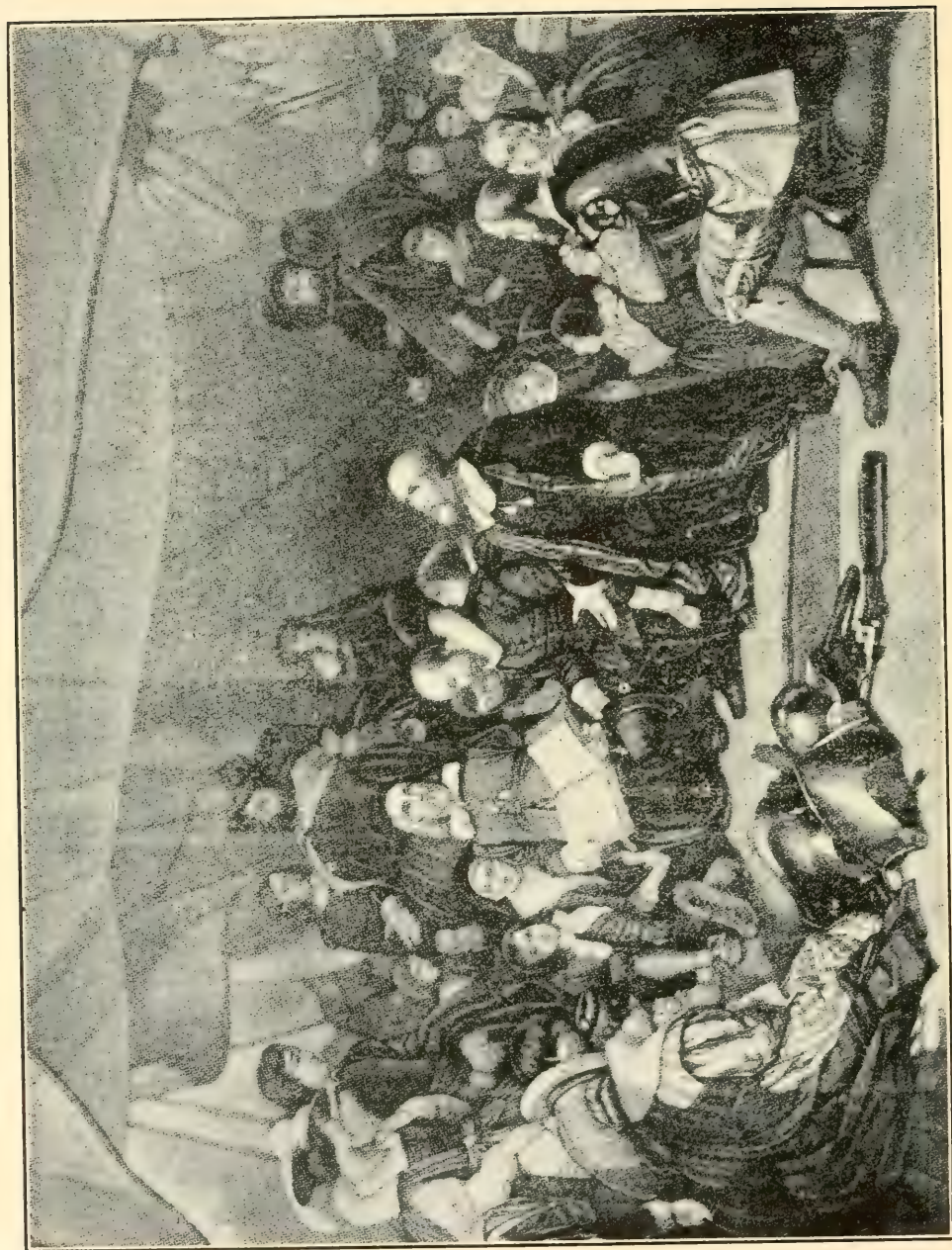
This brought present peace with the Indians, and Powhatan was ever afterward the fast friend of the English. When the Governor, Sir Thomas Dale, returned to England, in 1616, they, with several others of the settlement and all the women there accompanied him.

In England the "Lady Rebecca" received great attentions from the court and all below it. Pocahontas remained in England about a year; and when she was about to embark for America with her husband and son, and Tomocomo, her father's chief councillor, she sickened and died at Gravesend, in June, 1617, when she was not quite twenty-two years of age. She left a son, Thomas Rolfe, who became a distinguished man in Virginia, and whose descendants have been numbered among the honorable citizens of that commonwealth.

Prosperity was now the destiny of the settlements in Virginia, although the prime element of a permanent state—the family—was yet wanting. Because of this want, the settlers continually indulged in dreams of returning home. Dale, who had ruled with wisdom and energy, discouraged this feeling, and by engaging them in the cultivation of the tobacco plant, somewhat allayed it. His successors encouraged

its production, and in spite of the effort of King James to prevent its use in England, its growth and exportation to the mother country soon became the staple and very profitable business of the planters in Virginia. Its culture became a mania. The streets of Jamestown were planted with it, and food producing products were so neglected, that while great cargoes of tobacco were preparing for England, the necessities of life were wanting. It became the currency of the country, the money value of a pound of tobacco being fixed at about sixty-six cents.

Dale left Argall as deputy governor, but his petty tyranny and rank dishonesty disgusted the people. The story of his conduct checked emigration, and his office was given to George Yeardly, a wise statesman and a friend of man. On the death of Lord De la Ware, while on a voyage to resume the reins of government, Yeardly was appointed governor with wide discretionary powers. He abolished martial law, releasing the planters from feudal service and confirming their titles to lands in their possession, and establishing a representative government on the banks of the James, he laid the foundations of a permanent colony. He found the settlers yearning for the freedom enjoyed by their fellow-subjects in England. He could not reconcile that freedom with the then disabilities, so, with the sanction of the Company, he introduced a new political system in Virginia. The settlements were divided into eleven boroughs, each having two representatives, called burgesses, who were chosen by the people. These with the governor and council constituted the colonial government. Because of these liberties, the settlers expressed their gratitude; and when, in June, 1619, a representative assembly met at Jamestown, they felt they had a *home* in Virginia. Within two years after the meeting of the first House of Burgesses—the first representative assembly in America—about two hundred and fifty reputable young women were sent over from England to become the wives for the planters. These were re-



DEPARTURE OF THE PURITANS

ceived with gladness, and cherished with fondness. The tribe of gold-seekers had disappeared. Industry was the rule and not the exception in the settlements, and the *colony* of Virginia was firmly established.

MASSACHUSETTS.

We have considered the failures of the Plymouth Company to plant settlements in America. We will now consider other attempts and failures, and the permanent establishment of a settlement in New England.

The restless Captain Smith did not long remain idle after his return from Virginia. In company with four London merchants he fitted out two ships for the purpose of discovery and traffic in the northern regions of America. Captain Thomas Hunt commanded one of the vessels and Smith sailed in the other. They sailed in March, 1614, and landed on the island of Mohegan, about twenty miles from the mouth of the Penobscot River. Smith left the crews, employed in fishing, while he and a few men explored the several rivers far into the interior, and the coast from the Penobscot to Cape Cod. Smith constructed a map of the region, and after an absence of seven months, the vessels returned to England with cargoes of considerable value. On the map that Smith constructed the region was called *New England*, which title was confirmed by the King. Captain Hunt, wishing to impede settlements by inflaming the wrath of the Indians, so that he and a few others could enjoy a monopoly of the traffic on the coast, kidnapped twenty-seven of the savages at Cape Cod with Squanto, their chief, and taking them to Spain sold them as slaves. Some of them were taken by benevolent friars, who educated them for missionaries among the tribes, but only Squanto returned to America. The next fishing vessels that came from New England brought word that the natives were greatly exasperated.

Smith sailed on another voyage in the spring of 1615. His ship was shattered by a tempest and returned to port.

On the 4th of July, following, he sailed again but was captured by the French. While a prisoner, he wrote an account of his voyage to New England which was published the next year. After a brief captivity he was released and returned home. Meanwhile, the Plymouth Company had made him admiral of New England; but, discouraged by ill luck, the company had again abandoned the project of planting a colony there. Smith now drops out of sight in history, and not long after (1631) the founder of the Virginia colony died at the age of fifty-one years.

In 1620, King James gave a grant of all the land lying between 40 and 48 degrees north latitude, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific, to a commercial company, with many exclusive privileges. So great a monopoly did this bestow upon the company that Parliament took up the subject in warm debate, and while all parties concerned were wrangling over the subject, a permanent settlement in New England was made by the Puritans, who are familiar and dear to the American heart as the "Pilgrim Fathers."

The Puritans were a religious sect of England, who had existed since 1550. Their prominent traits of character were an uncompromising abstinence from gayety and amusements, firm belief in the practice of the teachings of the Bible, and a fervid love of civil and religious liberty. Having been driven from England by prosecution, because they would not conform to the doctrines of the Church of England, they took refuge in Holland in 1608. There they were permitted to live and worship God as they chose, but the national disregard for the Sabbath and the demoralizing influences surrounding their children, at last determined them to emigrate to the wilderness of America. Reports of the Virginia settlement had reached them, and they made application to the London Company to become colonists on their land. In their petition they made the following declaration of their principles: "We verily believe that God is with us and will prosper us in our endeavors.

We are weaned from our mother country, and have learned patience in a hard and strange land. We are industrious and frugal; we are bound together by a social bond of the Lord, whereof we make great conscience, holding ourselves to each others good. We do not wish ourselves home again; we have nothing to hope from England or Holland; we are men who will not be easily discouraged."

Some objections being made to their admission to the colony by members of the company, their consent was not given to the Puritans to emigrate to Virginia. One great difficulty in the way was their extreme poverty. In their persecutions and exile for conscience's sake they had become so poor that they could supply little or no means toward the expedition. After their failure to arrange with the London Company, a number of London merchants formed a company to advance the means for establishing the colony on condition that each emigrant should labor seven years to make up the amount of his stock in the company against the sum of ten pounds paid in by each of the merchants.

Two vessels, the *Mayflower* and *Speedwell*, were secured for the voyage, and all the younger and more vigorous of the Puritan congregation in Holland embarked on the vessels at Delft Haven in charge of William Brewster. At the parting their venerable pastor, John Robinson, who remained in charge of those still left in Holland, delivered to the emigrants an affectionate farewell, in which he said: "I charge you before God and His holy angels, that you follow me no further than you have seen me follow the Lord Jesus Christ. If God reveal anything to you, be ready to receive; for I am verily persuaded the Lord has more truth yet to break out of His Holy Word. I beseech you to remember it is an article of your Church covenant that you be ready to receive whatever truth shall be made known to you from the written Word of God. Take heed what you receive as truth; examine it, consider it, and compare it with other

scriptures of truth before you receive it; the Christian world has not yet come to the perfection of knowledge!"

The night before their departure was passed in prayer and exhortation on shore, in company of the venerable pastor and brethren who came with him from Leyden, and the next morning, after a prayer and benediction from Robinson, the Pilgrims went on board the ships and embarked for the New World. After stopping at Southampton and again sailing, it was discovered that the *Speedwell* was unseaworthy, and her captain, declaring that he could not cross the ocean with her, both ships put back to Plymouth, where they left the *Speedwell* and all the emigrants who could not go in the *Mayflower*. Again the *Mayflower* sailed with her devoted band of one hundred Pilgrims, and buffeting the waves with her precious freight, she reached the shores of a rock-bound, winter coast.

The Pilgrims had intended settling on the neutral territory near the Hudson River, but after sixty-three days they found themselves on the coast of Massachusetts, where they made a landing in a rock harbor, which they named Plymouth, after the last port from which they had sailed in the Old World. The landing was made on Plymouth Rock, on the 21st day of December, 1620, and immediately they began to build the first town in New England.

Among the prominent men of the colony were: William Brewster, the ruling elder; John Carver, William Bradford, Edward Winslow and Miles Standish. John Carver was elected governor and Miles Standish, the intrepid soldier, who had fought in Queen Elizabeth's army sent to aid the Dutch against the Spaniards, was elected as the captain of the colony.

The sufferings of the colonists began on the very day of their landing, but they bravely bore them without a murmur, and maintained a firm trust in God. It was slow, hard work to fell and hew the trees for building their houses, but they persevered even when their strength left them. During the

month of December, six of the colonists were taken sick, and before the winter ended over forty of them had been laid in their graves. Bradford and Winslow lost their wives, and Miles Standish also lost his young bride, Rose Standish, while among the men, Carver, the governor, lost his son; then he died and was soon followed by his wife, all of them were buried near Plymouth Rock. So discouraging was their condition that at one time only seven of the colony were not confined to sick beds.

But with all their sad and destitute condition not one of them desired to return on the *Mayflower*, when she set sail for England. The blessings of civil and religious liberty were too dear to them in the land of their adoption to be abandoned while life lasted, and even death would be sweet if at so dear a cost they could leave the birthright of freedom and constitutional government to their children and to unborn ages.

As spring advanced the health and prospects of the colonists improved, and during the summer they raised a scanty supply of food, but in the fall a new company of emigrants came, almost without provisions, and there was great danger of a famine. For many months the Indians had never entered the settlement, but when seen near by and approached, had always fled, until one day a friendly Indian, named Samoset, of the Wampanoags, entered the little village, exclaiming in English, "Welcome, Englishmen! Welcome, Englishmen!" It was a surprise to the little colony to hear him speak in their native tongue. He had learned a few English words from previous navigators and the fishermen on the Penobscot. Samoset told the colonists that they could occupy the settlement, as a pestilence had destroyed the former owners of the land. In a few days Samoset returned with Squanto, who was formerly kidnapped and taken to Spain as a slave, where he was ransomed by the monks and educated for a missionary, and returned to his native land. Squanto informed the Pilgrims that Massasoit, the chief of the

Wampanoags, wanted an interview with them. In a few days Massasoit, with a number of his tribe, visited Plymouth, and Squanto acted as interpreter, and by his influence a treaty was made with the Pilgrims, by which they bound themselves to defend each other from the attacks of enemies. This treaty was observed for over fifty years.

Captain Standish, feeling that it was "not good for man to be alone," almost immediately turned to Priscilla Mullins for consolation. She was the daughter of William Mullins, one of the *Mayflower* passengers. The captain was then thirty-seven years of age, and Priscilla had but just lately bloomed into young womanhood. In Standish's family lived John Alden, a young cooper from Southampton, whom the captain sent as ambassador to Priscilla's father to ask his consent for the soldier to visit her with matrimonial intent. He performed the duties of his mission modestly and faithfully. The father readily gave his consent, adding, "But Priscilla must be consulted." She was summoned to the room. There sat John Alden, whom she well knew—a young man of graceful form, a handsome, ruddy face and sparkling eyes, and of almost courtly manners. The ambassador of love repeated his message from the soldier. The calendar tells us it was leap-year, when English maidens had the privilege of wooing. "Prithee, John," said Priscilla, as she fixed her mischievous eyes on the face of the young diplomat, "why do you not speak for yourself?" John blushed, bowed and retired, for he was faithful to his trust. But his visit was soon repeated; and it was not long before the nuptials of the young couple were celebrated by the whole community, excepting Captain Standish, who could not readily forgive the weakness of his young friend in surrendering at the first assault from the eyes and lips of a maiden.

That was the first marriage in the colony, and the incidents were somewhat dramatic, for John Alden went to the nuptials seated on a young bull,

caparisoned with a piece of handsome broadcloth. Returning from the wedding, he led the bull by a ring in its nose, walking by his side, whilst his bride rode like a queen upon the animal. To the heart of Miles Standish, Priscilla upon Taurus was a repetition of the story of the carrying away of Europa, the Phœnician princess. Such is the story of tradition and poetry. History gravely tells us that there was no horned cattle in the colony until some time after this marriage.

From time to time the memory of that first marriage in New England has been revived by history and song. A vivid picture of it is given in Longfellow's "Courtship of Miles Standish;" and the notable wedding was brought to mind when, in April, 1874, Mrs. Phoebe C. Bailey died in Dover, New Hampshire, at the age of ninety-one years. She was the great-granddaughter of John Alden and Priscilla Mullins.

NEW NETHERLANDS.

We have already considered the incidents attending the discovery of the Hudson River and the country on its borders between its mouth and the site of Albany, in 1609. Let us now view the more prominent events connected with the establishment of a permanent settlement there.

The report that the newly discovered region abounded with fur-bearing animals, excited the keenest cupidity in the Dutch, for they had recently tasted the pleasures of a profitable fur trade, which they had opened with northern Russia.

Among the bold navigators who came from Holland was Adrien Block. His vessel was the *Tigress*. Late in the autumn of 1613, when laden with bear skins, she was accidentally burned to a useless wreck. The crew now built for themselves a rude log hut, where the warehouses of Beaver Street now stand, and went at work to construct a new vessel. Before spring it was finished and named the *Onrust*—"Restless"—a title that seems prophetic of

the unresting activity which now marks the island of Manhattan. The little hamlet then built, and the vessel there constructed, were fruitful seeds of the great commonwealth of New York.

In the spring of 1614, Block sailed through the dangerous strait of Hell Gate into Long Island Sound. Discovered and explored the Housatonic, Connecticut and Thames Rivers; anchored in the bay of New Haven; touched Montauk Point on the eastern end of Long Island and landed on a small island discovered by Verazzani, a century before, and which is now known as Block Island. After leaving Narragansett Bay, he sailed up the coast beyond Boston Harbor, where he fell in with his friend, Hendrick Christiansen, who was about to sail for Holland. Leaving his vessel in command of another navigator, Block sailed to Holland with his friend.

The merchants concerned in Block's discoveries, stimulated by his reports, obtained a charter in October, 1614, from the States-General granting them the privilege of making four voyages to any new passages, haven, land or places they might discover. The territory included in the charter, and which was defined as lying between Virginia and New France—between the parallels of 40 and 45 degrees—was called *New Netherland*.

Meanwhile, the *Onrust*, under command of Cornelius Hendrickson, had entered and explored Delaware Bay and River. Efforts were made to obtain a charter for this region also, but it was considered part of Virginia and not granted.

In 1618, at the expiration of the charter, it was not renewed. The directors of New Netherlands then prosecuted their trading enterprise upon the borders of the Hudson with increased vigor. They had built a fort on an island just below the site of Albany. They now enlarged their storehouse at Manhattan and made the little hamlet a social village. The traders went into the Mohawk Valley, and became acquainted and made a treaty with the powerful Iroquois league,

which was kept inviolate until New Netherlands passed into the hands of the English. It was a wise measure, for that confederacy was strong enough to have swept from the face of the earth all European intruders. Their power was felt, as we have observed, from the St. Lawrence to the Gulf of Mexico.

The Plymouth Company complained to King James of England that the Dutch were intruders on their domain, and Captain Dermer, of an English ship, when he stopped in the bay of New York, in June, 1619, warned them to leave. But the good-natured Dutchmen answered, "We found no Englishmen here;" and went on smoking their pipes, planting their gardens, catching beavers and otters, as if they had never heard the voice of Captain Dermer.

The sounds of royal bluster came occasionally from Great Britain, but that did not deter the States-General from helping their "loyal subjects" in New Netherlands, and they proceeded to charter the "Dutch West India Company," making it a great commercial monopoly by giving it almost regal powers to colonize, govern and defend, not only the little domain on the Hudson, but the whole unoccupied coast of America, from Newfoundland to Cape Horn. That charter contained all the guarantees of freedom in social, political and religious life necessary to the founding of a free state. Republicanism was recognized as the true system of government and home in its broadest and purest sense, as the prime element of political strength. No stranger was to be questioned as to his nativity or his creed as matters which concerned the state. "Do you wish to build, to plant, and to become a citizen?" was the sum of their catechism, when a new comer appeared. If the answer should be satisfactory, he was to be welcomed. That charter was granted on the 3d of June, 1621, at the time when the stricken Pilgrims at Plymouth, on the coast of Massachusetts, were cultivating their first fruit gardens and corn fields.

The Plymouth Company had been

granted a charter about this time. Without their consent no ships might enter any harbor on the American coast from the latitude of Philadelphia to Newfoundland, no fish could be caught within three miles of the coast, not a skin taken in the forests, nor an emigrant live upon the soil without their consent. The Holanders at the Hague were little moved by this order from the Plymouth Company, nor were the French, for a little later the captain of a French vessel, anchored in the mouth of the Hudson River, attempted to set up the arms of France there, and take possession of the country in the name of his King.

At that time there were thousands of refugees from persecution in the Netherlands. Among these were many of French extraction, who spoke the French language, called Walloons. They were a hardy, industrious and skillful race of men and women, and ranked among the most thrifty, honest and religious inhabitants. They heard the enticing stories of the beauty and fertility of Virginia, and some of them desired to emigrate to America. They applied to the London Company, but the terms were not liberal enough. The States-General, hearing of the movement commended them to the Dutch West India Company. An agreement was made with several families, and in the spring of 1623, they were ready for departure for their new home.

The emigrants, consisting of thirty families, with agricultural implements, cows, horses, sheep and swine, arrived in New York Harbor in May. They were under command of Cornelius Jacobsen May, of Hoorn, who was to remain in New Netherlands as first director or governor. His lieutenant was Adrien Joris. On their arrival they found the French mentioned above lying at anchor. The yacht Mackerel had just come down the Hudson. She compelled the French vessel to leave. He went round to the Delaware and received similar treatment, when he sailed for France. This ended the attempts of the French to assert jurisdiction below the forty-fifth parallel.

Some of the emigrants, it is said, settled on Long Island and founded the city of Brooklyn, now part of "Greater New York;" others went up the Connecticut River to a point near the site of Hartford and built Fort Good Hope, others planted themselves in the present Ulster County, in New York, and others founded Albany, where the Dutch had a fort called Fort Orange. Others, it is said, settled on the Delaware, then called the South River, near the mouth of Timber Creek, below the site of Philadelphia.

When May's lieutenant, Joris, returned to Amsterdam with a ship laden with furs, and reported the success of the settlers, the Company sent out ships with cattle, horses, sheep, swine, farming implements and seeds for their use, and more emigrants.

The English were now in league with the Dutch against the Spanish. This promised non-interference on the part of the English, and the Dutch West India Company proceeded to lay the political foundations of a state in New Netherland.

They commissioned Peter Minuit governor, with a council of seven men, a secretary of state, who also kept the Company's accounts, and a sheriff, who was public prosecutor and manager of the revenue. The council was invested with full powers, both civil and criminal, except in capital cases, which were to be tried in Holland. The council were under the jurisdiction of the Amsterdam College or Chamber of Nineteen.

Governor Minuit arrived in Manhattan at the beginning of May, 1626. He at once opened negotiations with the Indians for the purchase of the island, so as to procure a more valid title than that of discovery and occupation. It was purchased for the West India Company for twenty-four dollars and was estimated to contain twenty-two thousand acres. A fort was built where the "Battery" now stands, and named Fort Amsterdam, and afterward the city which grew up there was called New Amsterdam.

About this time an event occurred

which had a serious effect on the future success of the colony. Two adult Indians and a small boy, of a tribe in Westchester County, went from their homes to the Dutch settlement with beaver skins for barter. Near a pond which was situated where the "Tombs" prison now stands, the two Indians were murdered and their skins stolen. The boy escaped. He vowed vengeance; and in after years, when he was a stalwart brave, he fearfully executed his vow. The murder was unknown to the Dutch authorities for a long time, so the guilty men probably escaped punishment.

The Company took measures immediately to secure their title to the domain by more extended occupation. They had taken possession of the country before their final organization, by virtue of their charter, because they knew how jealous were the English; and to give a show of actual occupation, they had sent trading vessels which bore instructions to the officers of Manhattan and on the North River, and, as we have seen, proceeded to build fortifications.

Within seventeen years from the discovery of the Hudson, the foundations of the great commonwealth of New York were laid by *families*, most of whom were voluntary exiles from their native land for the sake of freedom of thought and action. These were the first seeds of the State. To these were added genuine Hollanders, who brought with them the principles of toleration, which lie at the foundations of a truly Christian State.

New Amsterdam gave to the state and nation a race in whose veins courses the blood of the Teuton, Saxon, Celt and Gaul. The colonists from Holland exhibited from the beginning, a more enlarged vision of the rights of conscience and respect for the dignity of personal freedom, than any other of the early American settlers.

Their passion for far-reaching commerce and adventurous enterprise has ever hovered over Manhattan Island like a tutelar deity, during all its social and political vicissitudes, and has made

New York City the commercial emporium of the Western Continent.

NEW HAMPSHIRE AND MAINE.

Sir Ferdinando Gorges and Captain John Mason obtained a patent for the country along the coast of New England, between the Merrimac and Kennebec Rivers, and back to the St. Lawrence, under the title of the "Province of Laconia." It was represented to be a terrestrial paradise in beauty and fertility. Mason and Gorges had agreed to divide their territory at the Piscataqua River, and in 1629 the former obtained a patent for the country between that river and the Merrimac, and gave it the name of New Hampshire. He built a house at the mouth of the Piscataqua, in 1631, and named the spot Portsmouth. Four years after he died. These settlers were now left to themselves to fashion an independent state, but it was of slow growth. There was then only one agricultural settlement in all New England, excepting in Massachusetts, and scarcely the germ of a state had appeared. The colonists were mostly squatters and moved from place to place. Feeble and scattered settlements grew in New Hampshire, and in 1641 these formed a union with the flourishing colony of Massachusetts, and remained a part of that colony until 1680, when it became a royal province. Then was laid the foundation of the commonwealth of New Hampshire.

The Plymouth Company being dissolved, Ferdinando Gorges was appointed Governor-General over New England, he sent his nephew, William Gorges, as his lieutenant, to administer the government. He made his headquarters at Saco, where he found about one hundred and fifty inhabitants. He established a regular government on the 28th of March, 1636, the first within the state of Maine. Soon after, a royal charter made the elder Gorges lord proprietor of a large territory in that region called the "Province and County of Maine." He made laws for his domain, but they were

little heeded in America. He lived for eight years after his appointment, and soon after his death the province passed under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts.

MARYLAND.

Sir George Calvert had taken great interest, from early youth, in the discovery and settlement of foreign countries. He was a member of the London Company, by whom Virginia had been colonized. He purchased a part of Newfoundland, named his domain Avalon, and at once, in 1620, took measures to plant a colony there, and failed.

In 1617, Calvert had been Knighted by his King, and in 1619 was made one of the principal Secretaries of State. He was then thirty-seven years of age. In the summer of 1624, his leanings toward the Roman Catholic Church became so palpable that he was compelled to relinquish his secretaryship. The following March he was appointed by King James to the Irish peerage as "Baron of Baltimore," in the County of Longford.

He made an attempt to found a colony in Newfoundland, and took his family there, but the climate was so rigorous in winter that he abandoned it. The Roman Catholics in England were suffering much persecution at that time from the Puritans on one side, who were daily increasing in strength, and from the Church of England on the other. And this is what induced Lord Baltimore to make the attempt to found a colony in Newfoundland, to make an asylum for them in America. In the spring of 1629, he sent his children home, and at the beginning of autumn, with his wife and retainers, sailed for Virginia, arriving at Jamestown in October. Being a Roman Catholic he was not allowed to settle there, so leaving his wife and retainers to winter there, he returned to England.

Lord Baltimore, while in England, obtained a patent for the territory south of the James River, and returned for his wife and retainers in 1630. The

Virginia Company made so much opposition to his charter that he was induced to surrender it and accept one for the territory north and east of the Potomac River, and embracing the Chesapeake Bay, which he explored.

Lord Baltimore desired to call that chartered territory *Crescentia*; but in deference to the King, was named after the queen "Henrietta Mary," and called *Maryland*. Lord Baltimore died in London, in 1632.

The territory defined in the charter extended on each side of the Chesapeake Bay, from the fortieth degree to the mouth of the Potomac, and westward along the line of that river.

This charter gave greater democratic privileges to the settlers than any yet issued by monopolist or monarch. It declared that the territory was "out of the plentitude of royal power;" the people were exempted from taxation by the crown, except by their own consent; and other important political privileges were secured to them. It silently allowed religious toleration. While it was in accordance with the Church of England, the matter of state theology was left to the legislative powers of the colonists. This promoted the growth of the colony when it was established. For those who were persecuted for religion, went thither and found peace. In the charter, it stated that no laws were to be made, without the consent of the freemen of the colony, or their representatives convoked in general assembly. This was the first instance of any provisions having been made in an American patent for securing to the citizens a share in legislation.

Lord Baltimore's son Cecil, now Lord Baltimore, armed with this charter, set about the business of colonizing his domain. He appointed his half-brother, Leonard Calvert, governor; and on the 22d of November, 1633, that kinsman and his brother, "with near twenty gentlemen, and three hundred laboring men" (so Lord Baltimore wrote), "sailed in two ships, the *Ark* and *Dove*. The greater portion of the laborers were not protestants. The

emigrants were accompanied by two Jesuit priests, Fathers Andrew White and John Altham.

They took the southern route, and late in February, 1634, sailed in between the Capes of Virginia. They touched at Point Comfort and then went up to Jamestown. They then sailed for the Chesapeake and into the broad mouth of the Potomac River. They named this stream St. Gregory, in honor of a Pope of that name. The colonists sailed up the Potomac to the Heron Islands, and on Blackstone (which they named St. Clements) they landed at a little past March.

Calvert now made a treaty of peace with the Piscataways, who were the ruling tribe of that region, and going to their village called Piscataway, above Mt. Vernon, the chief readily gave them permission to settle anywhere within his empire, near him or more distant. Calvert thought it better to settle nearer the mouth of the Potomac, and returned to St. Clements. There he found the natives friendly and familiar. The governor now explored the Wicomico River, emptying into another one (which they called St. George) twelve miles upward, and anchored at an Indian village of the same name, where he and his company were hospitably entertained that night. After holding a friendly conversation with the reigning sachem, he determined to plant his first settlement there, and make Wicomico the capital.

He possessed delegated powers to take possession of the country without leave or reward, but he believed that there was more profit in honor than dishonor. He entered into a treaty with the sachem to purchase a large portion of his domain. Calvert gave the Indians some English cloth, axes, hoes, rakes, knives, and some trinkets for the women of little value, for about thirty miles of territory, including the village; and he named the domain "Augusta Carolina." The Indians gave up to the colonists, for their immediate use, one-half of their village. Their houses were of "an oblong and oval shape," with a window in the roof,

which admitted light and allowed the smoke to escape from the fire built in the middle of the room. They also agreed to give the settlers one-half of their corn grounds, which they were then planting, and after the harvest the whole of the purchased domain was to be given up to the Britons. They mutually agreed to protect each other from injury, and were to be allies in war. The King regarded this as essential, for he wished a powerful ally, his territory having been desolated, and his subjects driven from their homes by the powerful "Susquehanocs" of the north.

On the 27th of March, 1634, Calvert took formal possession of the territory. The vessels came from St. Clements with the remainder of the emigrants. They built a storehouse and a small battery and planted a portion of the soil. There the governor, in April, with imposing ceremonies, named the settlement St. Mary's. The settlers immediately began to build, aided by the really gentle Indians. Governor Harvey, of Virginia, visited the settlement, and was received by Governor Calvert with great ceremony. He gave a banquet to Harvey and several of the neighboring Indian chiefs.

These settlers seemed to be exempted from the distresses which had befallen the earlier emigrants to other colonies. The surrounding native inhabitants were friendly; they had a genial climate, general good health prevailed; they had abundance of food and the soil yielded to moderate tillage, abundant fruit. They were vested with peculiar civil privileges; were not hampered by religious restrictions, and a year after they had established their capital of St. Mary's, a legislative assembly, composed of the whole people—a purely democratic legislature—convened there. In 1639, a representative government was established, the people being allowed to send as many delegates as they pleased. Then was founded the republican commonwealth of *Maryland*.

CONNECTICUT.

So early as 1623, the agents of the Dutch West India Company seems to have taken possession of the Connecticut River (which was named by its discoverer, "Block," the "Freshwater") and the lands drained by its tributaries, in the name of the Company and the States-General of Holland. By seizing one of the Indian chiefs they exasperated the natives, and were compelled to build a fort to protect themselves at what is yet known as Dutch Point, near the site of the present city of Hartford. When the Indians were pacified, at their request the fort was abandoned.

A friendly intercourse now opened up between the Dutch and the English at New Plymouth. In the spring of 1627, Governor Minit officially informed Governor Bradford, of Plymouth, that a settlement had been founded on the Hudson River, and that the Hollanders wished to cultivate friendly and commercial relations with the Pilgrims. Bradford replied that he wished friendly intercourse with the Dutch, but they must not occupy or trade in the country north of the fortieth parallel, as that region was claimed by the English. The Dutch answered that they obtained their rights from the States-General of Holland. Bradford did not answer this letter, as the strength of the Dutch exceeded that of the English.

The Dutch now sent a commission to Plymouth to confer on all matters of intercourse. That mission opened a profitable trade between the two settlements, and led to the speedy planting of an English colony in the Valley of the Connecticut.

The Dutch advised the Pilgrims to leave their sterile soil and make their home in the fertile country on the banks of the Fresh Water River. At the same time the Mohegan tribe of Indians offered Governor Winthrop, of Massachusetts, in 1631, to give them lands and an annual tribute if they would do so. The Indians' object was to plant a barrier between them and the

war-like Pequods, whose seat was on the hills between Newfoundland and Stonington. The Puritans would not consent to become subjects of the Dutch, nor a shield for the Indians.

In 1632, Edward Winslow, one of the Puritans, visited that region along the Connecticut River, and confirmed all that had been said as to its beauty and fertility. The name of it had already reached Old England and two years before Winslow's visit a charter had been granted for the territory extending "in a certain width through the mainland there, from the Atlantic to the Pacific Oceans" to the Earl of Warwick, who conveyed it to Lord Say and Seal, Lord Brook, Mr. Saltonstall and others, in 1632. The Dutch purchased the territories from the Indians, the rightful owners, and completed a fort already begun on Dutch Point, named it Fort Good Hope, and armed it with cannon.

The New England colonies now proposed an alliance for the taking of immediate possession of the valley. Winthrop refused to join them. But sent a message to the Dutch, in a formal way, telling them that the country belonged to the English and they must not build there. Governor Van Twiller answered, requesting him to defer his claim until their respective governments should define the limit of the colonies. At the same time Van Twiller informed him that the Dutch had already purchased the soil and "set up a house with intent to plant."

The Plymouth settlers purchased a tract of land above Fort Good Hope from a number of banished Indians, from the Connecticut Valley (families driven away with their chief by the Pequods), prepared a house of wood and stowed it on board a boat commanded by Capt. Wm Holmes. They sailed with these savages and some Englishman and approached Fort Good Hope, the commander of the fort ordered them back, but they kept on, and without molestation landed above. Hastily erecting the house they had brought with them, they took possession of the country, and prepared to

maintain their position. This house was built on the site of Windsor, Connecticut. So was begun the first English settlement in the region, in the autumn of 1633. The Dutch stormed at this intrusion, but the matter was finally referred to the authorities at Amsterdam. Before an answer could arrive, the subject became mixed with another of a serious nature. A Captain Stone had been on a trading voyage from Massachusetts to Virginia, on his return he sailed up the Connecticut River to trade with the Dutch garrison at Fort Good Hope. He and his companions were treacherously seized and murdered by the Pequods. This crime was soon followed by the massacre of some Indians friendly to the Dutch. Then the Dutch seized a guilty old sachem and some of his followers and hanged them. The Pequods flew to arms and made a treaty with the English, in which they were to give them the Connecticut Valley and surrender the murderers of Captain Stone, for their passive friendship. So Winthrop gained a great advantage over Bradford, and both parties won powerful allies, as they supposed, in the expelling of the Dutch from the Valley. At the same time the position and security of the settlers at Windsor were strengthened.

The Dutch, at this time, received instructions to maintain their position at all hazards. They sent an expedition against Windsor. The latter made a bold stand. After a parley the Dutch withdrew and friendly relations were established. The question as to whom the Valley of the Connecticut belonged was not considered and an influx of immigrants from Massachusetts Bay followed. In the autumn of 1635, sixty Puritan men, women and children joined the colony at Windsor. In October immigrants started from Massachusetts Bay, settled Wethersfield, on the site of Hartford.

Governor Winthrop's son John, then twenty-nine years of age, now arrived at Boston with a commission from the proprietors of the soil of Connecticut territory, as governor. His joint coin-

missioners were Hugh Peters and Harry Vane, respectively thirty-five and twenty-four years of age. They were instructed to build a fort and plant a colony at the mouth of the Connecticut River. The Dutch were driven away, and the dispute between the Massachusetts Bay and the Plymouth people in regard to the possession of the territory was amicably settled. This made way for the emigration of the English to the valley, which occurred in the summer of 1636. That summer, Rev. Thomas Hooker, a non-conformist minister, led 100 men, women and children, with over 150 head of cattle, to the Connecticut Valley. They arrived in July, and some settled at Wethersfield, some at Hartford and some went further up the river and settled Springfield. There were now five feeble settlements in the Connecticut Valley. One named in honor of Lords Say and Brook, was called Saybrook, it was near the fort at the mouth of the river.

Soon after this the settlers faced a storm, which seemed ready to sweep the little settlements from the face of the earth in a moment. The Pequods who were jealous of the English because the latter appeared to be friendly with the Mohegans on the west and Narragansetts on the east, the bitter enemies of this war-like tribe. Sassacus, a brave but treacherous sachem, was ruler, and held sway over twenty-six inferior tribes, and his domain extended from Narragansett Bay to the Hudson River, and over Long Island. He had the unbounded admiration of his warriors, who would follow him anywhere, and of whom there was almost two thousand. Seeing the power of the English in garrison at Saybrook, and knowing that more would join them, he resolved to exterminate the intruders. He tried every means to induce the Mohegans and Narragansetts to become his allies.

They kidnapped children, murdered Englishmen found alone, and destroyed or made captive families found on the borders of the settlements. Intending to exterminate the English in detail. They captured a Massachusetts trading

vessel on Block Island, plundered the vessel and killed the commander.

An expedition was sent out by the authorities in Boston, they killed a few Indians, burnt some wigwams and destroyed crops. The expedition, weak in numbers and injudiciously conducted, was looked upon with contempt by the savages, and intensified their hatred of the white intruders.

The Pequods were now on the point of inducing the Narragansetts to join them in a war of extermination, when at this critical juncture, Roger Williams, who had been driven from Massachusetts by persecution and had taken refuge with the Narragansetts, who had learned to love and respect him, heard of the proposed alliance and perceived the danger. Unmindful of the wrongs he had suffered from the Puritans, he hastened in an open boat, on a stormy day, across Narragansett Bay, to the dwelling of Miantonomoh, near the site of Newport, on Rhode Island. He was acting in place of his uncle (the chief Cononicus), who was very old, and was revered by them all.

He there found ambassadors from Sassacus, and at the peril of his life he prevented the alliance with the Pequods, and induced Narragansett chiefs to go to Boston, where they concluded a treaty of peace and alliance with the colonists.

The Pequods kept the settlements in constant fear all the autumn and winter. They plundered and murdered, and finally attacked Wetherfield, killed several and captured two girls. They had now slain more than thirty Englishmen.

At this time there were in the colonies two brave soldiers, who had served in the Netherlands. These were Captains John Mason and John Underhill. Mason was in Connecticut and Underhill was in Massachusetts, where he had been brought from England by Winthrop. Underhill was now placed in command of about two hundred men to help the people in the Connecticut Valley in the war. The settlers in the valley placed, under Mason, ninety men who rendezvoused at Hartford.

With twenty of them the captain hastened to reinforce the garrison at Saybrook. There he found Underhill, with an equal number of men. Mason hurried back, assembled his whole force, with these and seventy warriors of the Mohegans, under Uncas, he marched down to the fort. Uncas was of the royal blood of the Pequods, but was now in open rebellion against Sassacus, and a fugitive. He gladly joined the English against his enemy. As the war was begun by the Connecticut people, Captain Mason was regarded and obeyed as the commander-in-chief of the expedition.

It was determined to go into the Narragansett country and march against the rear of the Pequods. The expedition, in three vessels, sailed eastward, and the savages concluded that the English had abandoned the Connecticut Valley in despair. This was a fatal mistake on their part, they relaxed their vigilance and the whites, joined by two hundred Narragansets and as many Niantics, marched swiftly toward the stronghold of the Pequods. This stronghold was a few miles north of New London and Sonington, on a hill near the Mystic River.

Early on a June morning, in the bright moonlight, the stronghold was taken by assault, and in one hour, seven hundred men, women and children perished in the flames. Sassacus was not in the fort, and on hearing of the fate of his people, escaped and sought refuge among the Mohawks.

The remnant of the Pequods were searched out and exterminated without mercy, with the exception of a few who surrendered. Sassacus was assassinated by the Mohawks and his scalp sent to the English. A blow had been struck which gave peace to New England forty years. Uncas remained a firm friend of the English, and was buried near the falls of the Yantic, in the city of Norwich, where a granite monument, erected by the descendants of his white friends, marks the place of his sepulchre.

In 1637, there arrived in Boston, the Rev. John Davenport, a popular Puri-

tan preacher from London; Theophilus Eaton, a rich London merchant, and a third was Edward Hopkins, another rich London merchant. They were both members of Mr. Davenport's congregation and much attached to him. Their creed was, that you could carry out in practice the idea of finding in the Scriptures a special rule for everything in church and state. For the purpose of trying an experiment in government on the basis of that idea, Mr. Eaton and a small party settled on the banks of a stream, which the Indians called Quinnipiack, which emptied into a charming harbor on the north side of Long Island Sound. That was the site of New Haven, Connecticut. In the spring of 1638, Mr. Davenport joined his friends on the Quinnipiack, with a company of London merchants, and in proportion to their number, they formed the richest colony in America. They purchased the land from the Indians and proceeded to plant the seeds of a new state, according to their peculiar ideas. The settlement was to be governed by the Word of God (the Bible), and none should be allowed to settle there without their consent, whether they came in by purchase or otherwise. In 1640 they named the settlement *New Haven*.

People from Quinnipiack and the Valley now settled Fairfield, Norwalk, Guilford and Stratford, and Milford on the Housatonic. Others settled as far westward as Greenwich. The Dutch, however, continued in possession of their lands at Fort Good Hope, and a small garrison was kept there. When the English became strong in numbers, they paid little respect to the rights of the Hollanders. They ploughed up their lands and excused themselves with the plea that the soil was lying idle and ought to be cultivated by somebody.

In the middle of January, 1639, a convention was called to meet at Hartford, to frame a constitution of government. Like that of the New Haven colony. It was framed without the slightest reference to any other government.

This instrument which has been spoken of as the "first example in history of a written constitution—a distinct organic law, constituting a government and defining its powers," and which recognized no authority outside of its own inherent potency, continued in force as the fundamental law of Connecticut one hundred and eighty years. It secured for that commonwealth a degree of social order and general prosperity rarely equalled in the life of nations. The political organization under it was called the *Connecticut Colony*, and the domain acquired the title of "the land of steady habits." The two colonies were not united until twenty-six years later, but in 1639, was laid the foundations of the commonwealth of *Connecticut*.

RHODE ISLAND.

Narraganset Bay was discovered and thoroughly explored by Block, the Dutch navigator, as early as 1614, when he gave the name of Roode Eylandt or Red Island to the insular domain on its eastern side, now known as Rhode Island. New Netherland claimed the territory as far east as Narraganset Bay and westward from that line of longitude to Canada. That claim was made at about the time Roger Williams, the founder of the commonwealth of Rhode Island, sought refuge from persecution in the forests on the borders of Narraganset Bay.

Mr. Williams was a Welsh Puritan, educated in England. At the age of thirty-two years he fled from persecutions to New England, where he arrived in 1631, with his beautiful wife Mary. He was soon appointed assistant minister in the church at Salem, where he offended the ruling powers in both churches and state by his views respecting the freedom of conscience. He withdrew to Plymouth and after two years returned to Salem and became pastor of the congregation to whom he had ministered as assistant. His views again got him in conflict with the authorities, for he maintained

that there was an absolute and eternal distinction between the functions of the civil government and the Christian Church.

Late in the year 1635, he was banished from the colony, but through the intercession of influential friends, the time of his departure was extended until the following spring. He now taught his doctrines with more fervor, and boldly proclaimed himself in his opinions. This was too much for his people and the authorities in church and state, and it was resolved to send the "troubler" back to England. He had refused a summons to appear before the magistrate at Boston. Captain Underhill had been sent with a warrant to arrest him, but he had been informed, and kindly, but secretly advised by Ex-Governor Winthrop to "steer his canoe to the Narraganset Bay and Indians;" and when Underhill arrived he had been gone three days.

He made his way alone, through the forests and the deep snow, to the house of Massasoit, the venerable sachem of the Wampanoags, where he was warmly welcomed. The sachem gave him a tract of land on the Seekonk River, eastward of the site of Providence, at which place he and some friends who had joined him seated themselves, in the spring of 1636. Some distance above them, on the Seekonk or Pawtucket River, was a solitary settler named William Blackstone. He was a non-conformist minister who disliked the "lords brethren" of Massachusetts as much as the "lords bishops" of England. This place he had named Rehoboth-room. He was the first settler, but not the founder of Rhode Island, for he refused to join Williams and his friends.

The new colony was just about to begin and plant near the present Manton's Cove, when they received a letter from Governor Winslow, saying they were within the jurisdiction of the Plymouth Colony, and as he did not wish to offend the "the Bay" and desired that exiles should not be disturbed, he advised them to pass to the other side of the Seekonk, where they

would be beyond the jurisdiction of both colonies on the coast.

The settlers heeded this kind and wise advice, and in June settled at the mouth of the Mooshansic River. Williams named the spot *Providence*, and dedicated it as "a shelter for persons distressed for conscience."

Williams purchased the land from the aged Canonicus and the younger Miantonomoh, who had learned to love him. The land was obtained not for money, but through the personal influence of the men who there established a pure democracy, under the following simple articles of agreement:

"We, whose names are hereunder written, being desirous to inhabit in the town of Providence, do promise to submit ourselves, in active or passive obedience, to all such orders or agreements as shall be made for public good, by the body in an orderly way, by the major consent of the inhabitants, masters of families, incorporated together into a township, and such others as they shall admit into the same, only in civil things."

Every man was required to sign this compact, which left him free in all but "civil things." The conscience was left absolutely free.

During the Pequod war, we have mentioned William's services to the Puritans in Massachusetts and Connecticut, for which they showed no gratitude.

A brilliant and beautiful woman named Anne Hutchinson, a sister of the Rev. John Wheelwright, aroused the enmity of the authorities in Boston, through her preachings. She and her followers were invited by Williams to settle in the land of the Narragansets. They purchased from the Indians the beautiful island of Aquetneck, now Rhode Island; and at the close of March, 1638, they began a settlement at Portsmouth, near its northern extremity. They all signed an agreement similar to the one of Providence Colony. The motto of this colony was: *Amor vincit Omnia*—"Love is all-powerful."

Unwilling to yield allegiance to

either of the other colonies, Rhode Island and Providence settlements sought an independent charter which should unite them in one commonwealth. Through stern bigotry, they had been denied union with the other New England colonies for mutual defense. There isolation in case of trouble with the savages, would be both perilous and inconvenient. So Mr. Williams was sent to England in 1643, and obtained a charter from the King on the 14th of March, 1644, which connected the towns of Providence, Portsmouth and Newport under the title of "the incorporation of Providence Plantations in the Narraganset Bay in New England."

The charter which he bore to the people on the banks of the Narraganset was the corner-stone of a state. Then was founded the commonwealth of *Rhode Island*.

DELAWARE.

The Dutch, to stimulate emigration to their colony in New Netherland, granted a charter of "Privileges and Exemptions" to the Dutch West India Company, in 1629.

This charter gave them the right to grant to each settler, as much land as he was able to improve, to offer to every person who should "discover fit places for erecting fisheries or the making of salt ponds," an absolute property in such discovery. Any member of the Company who should plant a colony of fifty settlers anywhere in the province outside of the Island of Manhattan, was allowed a grant of land sixteen miles along one side of a navigable stream or eight miles on both shores. He had absolute control political and otherwise.

These proprietors were called "patroons" and the settlers under them were to be exempted from all taxes and tribute for the support of the provisional government for ten years, and were not to leave the patroon for the same period. Every colonist, whether patroon or independent settler, was bound to make satisfactory arrange-

ments with the Indians, for the land they should occupy.

One of these estates, on the Hudson, with some of its privileges, existed until late in the last century.

Under this charter, a large tract of land was purchased from the Indians, extending from Cape Henlopen, thirty miles northward and two miles inland, and Michael Pauw purchased another, the land around the mouth of the Hudson and the whole of Staten Island.

Immediate steps were taken to settle on this domain, and in April, 1630, thirty settlers, under command of Peter Heyes, with their cattle and implements settled near the site of Lewes, Delaware, on Delaware Bay. Two years after, when another expedition sailed to the Delaware, they found the settlement destroyed and the colonists massacred. This crime was forgiven, and the Indians and Hollanders remained friends.

William Usselinx, the projector of the Dutch West India Company, dissatisfied with his associates in that corporation, visited Sweden. The great Gustavus Adolphus was then King, and from reports he had heard, looked with longing eyes on the rich countries in America. He entered warmly into the projects of Usselinx, for planting a colony on the Delaware, and was preparing an expedition when he was killed in battle.

His Chancellor, Count Oxenstiern, had favored the project, and now being regent of the kingdom, granted a charter to the Swedish West India Company, in 1634.

Governor Minuit, who had been recalled from New Netherland, because he had favored the grasping patroons too much, offered his experience and personal services to the new company. They were gladly accepted; and at near the close of 1637, he sailed with fifty emigrants in two vessels, bearing a commission to plant a colony on the west side of Delaware Bay. He landed at the site of Newcastle, in April, 1638, and purchased from the Indians the whole territory from Cape Henlopen to the falls of the Delaware River at

Trenton, without the slightest regards for the claims of the Dutch. Then he sailed into the mouth of the river, and anchored in a creek at the site of Wilmington. They named the place Christiana, in honor of their Queen, and built a fort and a church. The country they named New Sweden.

The Dutch made a protest against the Swedes making a settlement on what they deemed was their territory, but Minuit paid no attention to this, but built Fort Christiana on the present site of Wilmington, and erected posts for trading. Well acquainted with the Indian traffic from long experience, he soon drew to Christiana a profitable fur trade; and sent back to Sweden cargoes of peltry and other products of the land. The fort was well garrisoned and provisioned, and the settlers there planted and reaped. So was established the first permanent settlement on the soil, and then and there was planted the fruitful seed of the commonwealth of *Delaware*.

NEW JERSEY.

Eastward of the Delaware Bay and River (so called in honor of Lord De la Ware, Governor of Virginia) lies New Jersey. It was first included in the New Netherland charter.

In 1622, transient settlements had been made at Bergen, and in the following year Director May built a fort at the mouth of the Timber Creek, a few miles below Camden, on the Delaware River, and settled some Walloons, at the site of the present Gloucester.

This was the first settlement on the soil of New Jersey that lived long, but it, too, withered away in time. Director May gave his name to the cape at the southern extremity of the state (Cape May).

Michael Pauw, when he made his purchase from the Indians, seven years later, named his territory Pavonia.

Charles the Second, King of England, granted a greater portion of the claimed territory of New Netherland to his brother, the Duke of York. The

Duke sent a fleet and army to take possession of his domain, the task was an easy one, and early in the autumn of 1664, the province passed into the hands of the English. While the fleet was on the ocean, and without the knowledge of Colonel Richard Nicholls, its commander, and deputy-governor of the province, the Duke granted to two of his favorites, Lord Berkeley, brother of the Governor of Virginia, and Sir George Carteret, who had been governor of the island of Jersey, which he had gallantly defended against the forces of Cromwell, a charter to the territory extending from Cape May to the latitude of forty degrees and forty minutes north.

Nicholls had named the territory, on taking possession of New Netherland, New York on the east of the Hudson, and Albania to the west of that river. So honoring his employer, who was Duke of York and Albany.

Berkeley and Carteret hastened to make use of their patent. They framed a constitution of government for the new colony and named it Nova Caesarea or New Jersey. The constitution provided for a governor and council, appointed by the proprietors, and representatives to be chosen by the people, who were to have the choice of a president in the absence of the governor or his deputy. All legislative power was vested in the Assembly of Representatives. Liberal provisions were made for the encouragement of emigration to New Jersey.

They appointed Philip Carteret, a cousin of Sir George, governor, and with about thirty emigrants, some of whom were Frenchmen, skilled in the art of salt-making, arrived in July, 1665. Governor Nicholls was astounded by the folly of the Duke in parting with so much of his valuable domain, for he regarded Albania as the "most improvable part of the territory." He was mortified over the dismemberment of a state over which he had been ruling so many months with pride and satisfaction.

He received Carteret, however, with all the honors due his rank and station.

In pursuance of the Duke's orders, Nicholls formally surrendered Albania into the quiet possession of Carteret, and thenceforth that region appeared as New Jersey on the maps.

Carteret entered his domain, as governor, early in August, with a hoe on his shoulder in token of his intention to become a planter among them.

He chose for his seat of government a spot on the present site of Elizabeth, which he called Elizabethtown, in honor of the wife of Sir George Carteret, where he found four English families living in as many neatly built log cabins, with gardens around them.

He built a house for himself on the banks of the little creek, and there he organized a civil government. So was laid the colony and commonwealth of *New Jersey*.

PENNSYLVANIA.

George Fox, a shoemaker of Leicestershire, England, was the founder of the sect called Friends or Quakers. This sect preached morality so strict that they were called ascetics. Taking part in war, slavery, lawsuits, intemperance and profanity of speech, was sufficient reason, if persisted in, for the expulsion of a member from the Society. Their practices so generally agreed with their principles that it was admitted that the profession of a Quaker or Friend was a guarantee of a morality above the level of the world.

Among the multitude of converts to the doctrines of George Fox was young William Penn, a son of the distinguished admiral of that name. He embraced the doctrines while he was yet in college. On account of his convictions, he had a long struggle with his father. He was beaten and turned out of doors by his angry parent. For preaching in the streets he was tried in court, and on being acquitted by the jury, was imprisoned for contempt of court for wearing his hat. The young Quaker was then only about twenty-four years of age.

Many "Friends" had emigrated to

America, and two had become proprietors of New Jersey. Penn acted as umpire between them in a dispute that arose and so his particular attention was drawn toward this country. He looked with longing eyes across the Atlantic, for a home for himself and his sectarian friends, out of the reach of persecution.

In payment of a debt of eighty thousand dollars, due to his father from the government, he obtained a charter from the crown for a vast territory beyond the Delaware. With the perpetual proprietorship given to him and his heirs, in the fealty of the annual payment of two beaver skins. Penn proposed to call the domain "New Wales," in honor of the land of his ancestors, but the Welsh secretary of state objected. Then he suggested "Sylvania" as appropriate for such a woody country. The secretary who drew up the charter prefixed the name of Penn to Sylvania, in the document. The proprietor offered him one hundred dollars to leave it off. On his refusal to do so, Penn complained to the King, who insisted that the province should be called "Pennsylvania," in honor of his dead friend the admiral. And so it was. The domain extended north from New Castle, in Delaware, three degrees of latitude, and five degrees of longitude west from the Delaware River. To Penn was given power to ordain all laws with the consent of the freemen, subject to the approval of the King. No taxes were to be raised except by the provincial Assembly; and clergymen of the Anglican Church were to be allowed to reside in the province without molestation.

Penn's charter was granted on the 14th of March, 1681. In May he sent his Kinsman William Markham, to take possession of his province and to act as deputy governor. A large company of emigrants went with him. They were employed by the Company of Free Traders, who had purchased lands in Pennsylvania of the proprietor. They settled near the Delaware. With the help of Algernon Sidney, the sturdy republican, Penn drew up a

code of wise, liberal and benevolent regulations for the government of the colony, and sent them to the settlers the next year for their approval. It was not a formal constitution, but a body of wholesome laws for the benefit of all concerned.

Penn found that the want of a seaboard for his colony would be a serious bar to its future prosperity. He desired Delaware for that purpose and resolved to have it if possible. It was claimed by Lord Baltimore as a part of Maryland, and had been a matter of dispute between him and the Duke of York. Penn advised the Duke that Baltimore's claim was "against law, civil and common." The Duke gladly assented to the opinion, and the wise Quaker obtained from the Duke a quit-claim deed for the territory comprising the whole State of Delaware, then, as now, divided into three counties, of Newcastle, Kent and Sussex; also for all of his interest in the soil of Pennsylvania.

Within a week after the bargain was settled, Penn set sail for America, in the ship *Welcome*, with about one hundred emigrants, many of whom died of small-pox on the voyage. That was at the close of August, 1682. On his arrival at New Castle early in November, he found almost a thousand new emigrants there. These, with the three thousand old settlers—Swedes, Dutch, Huguenots, Germans and English—composed materials for the solid foundations of a state. There, in the presence of the people, he received from the agents of the Duke of York a formal surrender into his hands of that fine domain. By this transfer Penn inherited for himself and descendants a dispute with the proprietors of Maryland.

Penn now went many miles up the Delaware River, to the present Kensington district of Philadelphia, and there, under a wide-spreading elm, he concluded a treaty with the Indian chiefs, not for the purchase of lands, but to confirm what Markham had promised them for him, and to make an everlasting covenant of peace and friendship with them. "We will live

in love with William Penn and his children," they said, "as long as the sun and moon shall endure." And they did. Not a drop of the blood of a Quaker was ever shed by an Indian.

There is no written record of that treaty, made in the open air, on the banks of the Delaware. We have accounts of the personal character of the council. Penn was then a graceful man, strong built and of fair complexion, and thirty-eight years of age. Most of his companions were younger than himself, and all were dressed in the garb of Quakers. The Indians were clad in the skins of beasts, for it was on the verge of winter. Penn was accompanied by the deputy governor, and a few others; and the Indian sachems brought their wives and children, who sat upon the ground, modestly back.

Penn now journeyed through New Jersey to New York and Long Island, visiting friends and preaching with fervor. He then returned to the Delaware, and on the seventh of November he went to Uplands (now Chester), where he met the first Provincial Assembly of his province. There he made known his benevolent designs toward all men, civilized and savage, and excited the love and reverence of his hearers. The Assembly tendered their grateful acknowledgments to him, and the Swedes authorized one of their number to say to him in their name that they would "live, serve, and obey him with all they had," declaring that it "was the best day they ever saw." He informed the Assembly of the union of the "territories" (as Delaware was called) with their province.

Then was laid the foundations of the commonwealth of *Pennsylvania*.

From Chester, Penn went to Maryland to confer with Lord Baltimore, concerning their boundary lines, but did not make a satisfactory arrangement. On his return he went up the Delaware in an open boat to Wicaco, to attend the founding of a city. Before his arrival in this country he had determined to give to the future city the name of *Philadelphia*—a Greek

word signifying brotherly love—as a token of the principles in which he intended to govern his province. Near a block house, which the Swedes had built and had changed into a church, he purchased lands extending from the banks of the Delaware to those of the Schuylkill. There his surveyors laid out the city of Philadelphia upon a plan which would embrace twelve square miles.

NORTH AND SOUTH CAROLINA.

The desire of the white man, to found colonies in the warmer portions of North America, had always been strong. The efforts of the English and French had met with failure, and the country south of the James River, in Virginia, was in the same virgin state as it was when discovered. Some few settlers went there to find homes or in search of fortune, but no permanent settlements were made until after the middle of the seventeenth century.

Captain John Smith, in 1609, sent a few colonists, from Jamestown, who settled on the Nansemond River, near the Dismal Swamp. In 1630, Sir Robert Heath, the Attorney-General of Charles the First, obtained a charter for a large region in this section, but it was declared void in 1663, because the agreements had not been fulfilled.

In 1653, a few Presbyterians, in order to escape persecution, left Jamestown and settled on the Chowan River, near the present village of Edenton. They were joined by others and the settlement grew. In 1661, some New Englanders purchased lands in the vicinity of Cape Fear, and were planting a colony, when they were informed that the whole country had been granted by the King to some of his favorites. Most of the New Englanders returned home, and reported that the soil was poor and the harbor dangerous.

The above charter or grant was given in March, 1663. It included the region between Albemarle Sound and the St. John's River, in Florida, and west to the Pacific Ocean.

The colonists on the Chowan River had now flourished to such an extent that they were organized into a separate government, under the title of the *Albemarle County* colony, so named in honor of Monk, Duke of Albemarle. The colonists were given every freedom which they could reasonably desire, and they were left to grow into an independent state with very little hindrance.

Two years later some English emigrants, from Barbadoes, purchased from the Indians thirty-two square miles of land on the Cape Fear River and settled there, this included the country abandoned by the New Englanders. This was near the present site of Wilmington, North Carolina. Sir John Yeamans was appointed governor, with jurisdiction from Cape Fear to the St. John's River. The settlers found on the land were treated very kindly, and the name *Clarendon County Colony* was given to the settlement. The soil was poor, which retarded the growth of the colony as an agricultural settlement. But they soon found, in the immense pine forests, an industry that made them prosperous, they manufactured boards, shingles and staves, and gathered turpentine, for all of which there was a ready sale in the West Indies. The settlement became permanent; and so, with the organization of the two colonies, the foundation of the commonwealth of *North Carolina* was laid.

Another charter was obtained in June, 1665, by the patentees which confirmed the former one. It granted to them the territory from the now southern boundary of Virginia to the peninsula of Florida, and westward to the Pacific Ocean, comprising all of our states excepting the lower part of Florida, south of the thirty-sixth degree, and a part of Mexico, the whole under the name of *Carolina*. The founding of a great empire was the object of the proprietors, and nothing was neglected to that end. The interests of England or the colonists were not considered.

Three ships, under the directions of

William Sayle and Joseph West, were sent with emigrants, early in 1670, to settle the southern portion of Carolina. They entered Port Royal harbor and settled on Beaufort Island, near the place where the Huguenots built Fort Carolina a hundred years before. There Sayle died and was buried. Beaufort was soon abandoned and sailing northward the emigrants entered Charleston harbor, and on the banks of a stream, a few miles above Charleston, they settled, built houses and tilled the soil. This spot they called Old Town, and there was the beginning of the colony of South Carolina. Yeamans, the governor, arrived a little later, and brought with him fifty families and many negro slaves. This was the introduction into South Carolina of slave-labor, which has always been a planting state.

The settlement of Old Town was organized under the title of *Carteret County Colony*, and representative government was established there in 1672. This was the founding of the commonwealth of *South Carolina*.

It was known as the place where freedom was enjoyed, and emigrants flocked to it, from England, Holland and New York. They spread over the peninsula between the Ashley and Cooper Rivers, named in honor of Ashley Cooper, one of the proprietors.

At Oyster Bay, on the verge of a fine harbor, in the sight of the sea, and at the junction of three streams, was founded, eight or ten years later, the capital city Charles Town (Charleston) named after the King. Old Town was now abandoned.

The constitution which was framed to establish a great empire in the Carolinas, was the ideas of Sir Ashley Cooper and John Locker, and was perfected in 1669. Neither of these men were fitted to the task of forming a government for a free people. It provided for titles, and classes, and aristocratic distinctions in America. It was submitted to the people and rejected. The colonists had made their own laws, were satisfied with them and would have nothing to do with the laws of

the proprietors. Under their own laws they remained over sixty years, when they were separated and formed the colonies of *North and South Carolina*.

GEORGIA.

Between the Savannah and the Altamaha Rivers, there was a region wholly unoccupied by white inhabitants at the end of the first quarter of the eighteenth century. At that time in both Europe and America, the English and the Spaniards held an unconquerable antagonism to each other. The English were rapidly filling up the territory bordering on the Spanish possessions in Florida, with emigrants, and as the Indians of that region had an abiding hate for the Spaniards, the English were rapidly gaining all the trade with them.

Nearly all the manual labor in South Carolina at this time, was performed by negro slaves, imported from Africa. They had become essential to the prosperity of the colony. To prevent the English planters from settling below the Savannah River, the Spaniards were enticing their slaves away with promises of freedom and the privileges of Spanish subjects. They were successful, and it was from this alarming state of things that the South Carolinians were seeking a remedy.

At this time in England, the conditions of the prisoners for debt were horrible in the extreme. They were enduring sufferings worse than the slaves in the West Indies. Colonel James Edward Oglethorpe, a graduate of Oxford, a brave soldier, and then a member of Parliament, caused an act to be passed to inquire into the condition of these unfortunates. The revelations of the prisons were horrible and sickening.

Oglethorpe now proposed to plant a colony of the unfortunates in the unoccupied country below the Savannah. His colleagues readily assented, an appropriation was made, and on the 9th of June, 1732, the King granted a charter for founding a colony with the name of *Georgia*, in compliment to King George the Second.

Colonel Oglethorpe was appointed governor. The legislative power was vested in twenty-one trustees, the governor being one of the number, and their powers were to last twenty-one years.

Thirty-five families, one hundred and twenty emigrants, men, women, and children, now set sail, accompanied by Oglethorpe as governor, and arrived at Charleston at the middle of January, 1733. They were received with great joy by the inhabitants, and the Assembly of South Carolina voted them a large supply of cattle and other provisions, for they were regarded as valuable auxiliaries.

Oglethorpe, accompanied by a guide, went forward to select a suitable place for settlement. He chose Yamacraw Bluff on the Savannah River, about ten miles from the sea. There he laid out a town and returned to Beaufort, where the emigrants had been sent from Charleston. Then they all proceeded to the spot he had chosen, and arrived on the first of February. The settlement was named Savannah. They were now in the territory of the powerful Creek Confederacy, and not far from the seat of the tribe over whom presided Tomochichi, a venerable chief, ninety-one years old, of commanding person and grave demeanor. His power was supreme and he had great weight throughout the confederacy. Oglethorpe now made a treaty with this powerful Indian chief, by which all unoccupied lands within defined boundaries were assigned to the English. This treaty was ratified by the trustees on the 18th of October, 1733, when the English obtained sovereignty over all the domain between the Savannah and Altamaha Rivers, westward to the extent of tide water, and all islands but three from Tybee to St. Simons.

In the spring of 1734, Oglethorpe went to England, leaving the colony in the care of others. He took along with him Tomochichi, his Queen, his nephew and several other chiefs, believing that the sight of the power of the English would increase the respect

of the savages. The Indians remained in England four months, were presented to the King and were everywhere given the pleasantest welcome. They returned, with a considerable number of new emigrants, in December, 1734.

Oglethorpe returned to Georgia in the beginning of 1736. He brought with him about one hundred and fifty Scotch Highlanders, who constituted the first army in Georgia during its early struggles. With him also came the Rev. John Wesley, the founder of the Methodist Church, and his brother

Charles, who came to preach the gospel to the heathen.

With a population of more than five hundred souls; with a military force, and with means of religious instruction, the foundations of the colony of Georgia was now firmly laid.

We have now considered the more prominent events in the history of the planting of settlements in America, and the development of many of them into permanent colonies.

We will now consider the processes by which small settlements grew into great commonwealths in the form of British-American colonies.

THIRD PERIOD

COLONIES

VIRGINIA.

The first permanent English colony in America was established in Virginia, when Governor Yeardley, in 1619, organized a representative government there.

At about this time, an element was introduced into Virginia society which had a powerful influence on its destiny, and on the nation which it afterward formed a part. That was the introduction of negro or African slavery. The planters had heard of the capacity of the black men and women to endure labor in the warm regions. They purchased twenty of these from a Dutch slave trader, and finding them good workers and docile, imported more. So began the system of slavery in our country.

The London Company had spent large sums of money in colonizing Virginia, and now, twelve years after its settlement, there was only six hundred Europeans there. Sir Edwin Sandys, whose reputation for candor and other virtues was well known among the colonists, was sent to investigate what retarded its progress. In one year he purged Virginia of its bad name, and induced more than twelve hundred emigrants to go to the James River.

The sagacious Sandys perceived the needs of the colony. The English, more delicate in their tastes and habits than the French or Portuguese, refused to marry the Indian women. And very few English women had crossed the Atlantic. Very few of the settlers expected to remain in the colony. Most of them looked for a return to England when they had obtained the means. Sandys proposed to send to Virginia, one hundred virtuous and attractive young English women of the middle class in society, to become the wives of

the planters. Their transportation to be paid by their future husbands.

Ninety young women were induced to go to Virginia, early in 1620. In a few days after their arrival at Jamestown they were all married. The young matrons sent home word for other maidens to come, and sixty more arrived the next year, others followed. The price of a wife was fixed at one hundred and twenty pounds of tobacco or about ninety dollars. It finally rose to one hundred and fifty dollars. To encourage wedding, the Company gave preference to married men in conferring employments. Men no longer talked of returning to England, but called Virginia their home. Emigration rapidly swelled the population, and at the close of 1621, there were three thousand five hundred inhabitants of European blood in Virginia. Settlements had already been made on the James River as far remote from the capitol as the present site of Richmond. And at Dutch Gap, then named Henricopolis, a church had been built and a grammar school established for the education of the Indian children. Seventy years afterward, during the reign of William and Mary, a college was established at Williamsburg, named after those sovereigns, which still flourishes.

In the year 1621, the London Company granted a written constitution to Virginia, modelled after that of England, but exceedingly simple; the pilgrims in the *May-Flower*, more democratic, gave to themselves a written constitution about the same time, fashioned to meet the circumstances of their case, and still more simple. A century and a half afterward, as we shall discover, the inhabitants of these two colonies, then founded, were lead-

ers in the struggle for that political independence which these early constitutions forshadowed. The Virginia constitution provided for a governor and council to be appointed by the Company, and a popular legislative body to be chosen by the people, called a House of Burgesses, and these, with the governor and council, composed the General Assembly. The acts of the Assembly were not valid unless they received the sanction of the Company in London. But with unexampled justice, it was also provided that no orders from the Company should be binding, unless ratified by the Assembly.

The colonists now rejoiced in the prospect of long years of peace and prosperity before them, and the atmosphere of their daily life appeared perfectly serene.

Powhatan, the friend of the English, was dead, and his younger brother, the truly savage Opechancanough (the captor of Smith), was ruler of his empire. He hated the English and believed they intended to seize his lands, and exterminate his race. He therefore determined to strike a blow for his country and his people. He professed great friendship for the English, but at the same time used every means to inflame the anger of his people against them.

There had never been a war with the Indians. The settlements were scattered, some of them in solitary places, and yet no one had ever been disturbed since the happy marriage of Pocahontas. At mid-day, on the first of April, 1622, the Indians fell upon all the remote and isolated settlements, and in one hour, three hundred and fifty men, women and children were slain. Among the victims were six members of the council and several of the wealthier inhabitants and even the missionary who taught the Indian children.

The people at Jamestown were warned by a friendly Indian, and were so prepared. In the course of a few days, eighty inhabited plantations were reduced to eight. But a large part of the colony was saved.

The English, in revenge, now immediately waged a vindictive and exterminating war. Every man capable of bearing arms appeared in the field. They spread death and desolation over the peninsula between the York and the James Rivers. The Indians were slaughtered by scores, or driven far back in the forest. Before the war, there were about six thousand Indians within sixty miles of Jamestown, at the close of the war, there were probably not a thousand within that territory. Opechancanough escaped, but his power was broken, and the strength of his people had departed.

The blight of war, pestilence and famine fell upon the colony. Large areas of land were left uncultivated; and many of the settlers returned to England. From four thousand souls, the colony was reduced to twenty-five hundred. The condition of the colonists excited sympathy in England, and ships were sent with supplies.

King James, finding a majority of the London Company drifting toward republicanism, decided to obtain control of the Company and the colony. At an election of officers for the Company, in 1622, he tried to control the candidates, and failed. He sent a commission to Virginia, to inquire into the affairs of the colony, and to frighten the House of Burgesses into a relinquishment of their rights, under the charter. Not being successful, the King in July, 1624, cancelled the charter and Virginia became a royal province again. Sir Francis Wyatt was appointed governor by the King, with twelve councillors of state, but he did not interfere with the House of Burgesses. King James died soon afterward, and was succeeded by his son, Charles the First, on the 6th of April, 1625.

Charles did not change the political situation in the colony. He appointed Sir George Yeardley, governor and gave to the planters a monopoly of the English market for their tobacco. But, however, they were compelled to sell their product to the agents appointed by the King. One of these

agents was the harsh Sir John Harvey.

The colony prospered until Harvey was made governor in 1629, two years after the death of Yeardley. In 1628, not less than a thousand English people emigrated to Virginia. Harvey assumed the duties of his appointment in 1630, and very soon made himself very unpopular, and caused much confusion. His land grants tended to place the soil in the hands of a few; he offended the Republicans in many ways. The House of Burgesses deposed him and sent him to England. The King sent him back with power to rule the state independently of the people.

Harvey was succeeded in 1639 by Sir Francis Wyatt, whose administration was an uneventful one. In February, 1642, Sir William Berkeley, brother of Lord Berkeley (one of the earliest English proprietors of New Jersey), arrived at Jamestown as governor. He was only thirty-two years of age, and of fine appearance, educated at Oxford and polished by extensive travel in Europe.

He was very popular in Virginia for many years. He was a staunch royalist, but his adhesion to the cause of the King during the civil war between the years 1641 to 1649 was so prudent that a greater part of the Virginians were in sympathy with him. The majority of the colonists were members of the Church of England, but a considerable number of Puritans had settled there. Berkeley being of the cavalier class, despised the non-conformists, and knowing their leanings toward republicanism decreed that no Puritan minister should preach in public. And this was soon followed by the banishment of non-conformists from the colony. It was a calamity; but a heavier one soon fell upon the Virginians.

Ever since the massacre in 1622 there had been deadly hostility between the colonists and the Indians. Opechancanough was yet living, and past ninety years of age. When Thomas Rolf, the son of Pocahontas, came from England with the consent of the Vir-

ginia Assembly, to visit his uncle, the chief heard from his lips of the civil war raging in England. This was in 1643. The old chief concluded this was the time to strike. Very soon a confederacy was formed among the Indians over an area many hundred square miles in extent. A day was fixed for the execution of the scheme. Early in April, 1644, the savages fell upon the colonists, and in the space of two days killed three hundred of the settlers.

Berkeley met the murderers with an armed force and drove them back with great slaughter. The old chief was taken prisoner, and having been mortally wounded soon died. The remaining chiefs acknowledged allegiance to the authorities, and after ceding large tracts of land the confederacy expired. The colonists then had peace and prosperity.

The colonists felt none of the oppressions nor disputes that afflicted their kindred in England. When the King was beheaded the cavaliers flocked to Virginia in great numbers, bringing valuable additions to the refined society of the colony, and strengthened the royal cause in that province. The colonists exercised the freedom of an independent government. In 1648 there was over twenty thousand inhabitants in Virginia. When the King was slain the Virginians recognized the exiled son as sovereign; and Sir William Berkeley conducted the affairs of the colony as governor under a commission sent him by that prince. Virginia was the last country belonging to England that submitted to the government of the commonwealth under Cromwell.

In the spring of 1652 a powerful fleet was sent to Virginia by the Republican Parliament in England. On their arrival they were met with such firmness, and astonished at the boldness of the colonists, deemed it prudent to compromise with them. Berkeley resigned, and Richard Bennet was elected governor.

When Berkeley and the cavalier party in Virginia had received news of

the expedition to be sent to subjugate them they had invited Prince Charles to come over and be their King. Events however foreshadowed the restoration of the monarchy, which took place in 1660, when Prince Charles ascended the throne, as Charles the Second of England. From the circumstance the title of the "Old Dominion" was given to Virginia.

When Matthews died (1660), whom Cromwell had appointed governor, the people elected Berkeley. He refused to serve unless he should receive the royal commission, and went to England to obtain it. The King made him governor, and he returned to Virginia prepared to execute the King's will in full. Cavaliers and land-owners were elected to the House of Burgesses, and Berkeley had a pliant assembly of royalists. Laws were passed which modified, abridged or abolished nearly every franchise which the people possessed. The Church of England was made supreme, and attempts were made to sweep every other sect out of the colony. Large numbers of Quakers and Puritans sought the wilds of North Carolina, where they formed settlements away from persecution.

As Berkeley grew older he became less tolerant, and drifted in thought and action to the cavaliers, who hated everything that marked the character of the Puritans. There were no free schools, and printing was a crime. There were no roads or bridges, and every planter was compelled to be his own mechanic. Most of the houses were mean log huts with unglazed windows. Villages existed nowhere. Even the capital of the colony consisted only of a church, state-house and eighteen dwellings at this time.

Meanwhile the large land-owners were living in luxury in fine mansions, surrounded by slaves or indentured servants. The "common people" saw that the tendency in Virginia was toward a landed aristocracy and an impoverished peasantry, and they longed for a pretext to assert their natural rights.

The King, in 1673, actually gave to

Lord Culpepper and the Earl of Arlington all the dominion, land and water called Virginia, for the term of thirty-one years.

Oppression vigorously stimulated Republicanism in Virginia. The men of toil, and righteous ones of the aristocracy, soon formed a powerful party, and the act of the King increased its strength.

Rebellious murmurs were heard everywhere. The toiling people were made to regard the aristocracy as their natural enemies.

In 1675 a war broke out between Maryland and the Indians, and Virginia sent a company of soldiers, under John Washington, the great-grandfather of George Washington, to help the people of Maryland. When they arrived on the Potomac the Susquehannas sent six of their chiefs to treat for peace, but the Virginians killed the entire number. This enraged the Susquehannas, and they marched over the border into Virginia and killed ten men for every one of theirs whom the Virginians had slain. In their distress the people called upon Berkeley to send soldiers to their aid, but he was more interested in the fur trade, and made no effort in behalf of the unprotected settlements. The people then called on Nathaniel Bacon, a young Englishman, a lawyer and a patriot, to take command of their volunteer soldiers, but Berkeley, who disliked Bacon, refused to grant him a commission. The Indians continued their bloody work until the situation became so desperate that the volunteers put themselves under command of Bacon and marched against the Indians. On hearing of this action Berkeley proclaimed Bacon a traitor and his soldiers rebels. At this time the more populous counties that were not molested by the Indians exhibited signs of dissatisfaction at the usurpation of the Assembly and the haughty actions of the governor, and as soon as Bacon had returned successfully with his troops the people forced the obnoxious Assembly to dissolve, and an election for new members was called. Among these Bacon was elected

to represent Henrico County, and the new Assembly corrected the evils of its usurping predecessor. They also elected Bacon commander of the army, to which at first Berkeley refused to give his sanction, but after having done so, as soon as Bacon again went in pursuit of the Indians Berkeley again proclaimed him a traitor. In reply to this Bacon said: "It vexes me to the heart that while I am hunting the wolves which destroy our lambs, I should myself be pursued like a savage."

To thwart the will of the people Berkeley then gathered a motley army of English sailors and Indians and prepared to subjugate the people to his will. In anticipation of his intentions the people met in convention at Middle Plantation, and resolved to oppose his tyranny by force. Soon after this Berkeley with five ships sailed to Jamestown to put down what he termed an insurrection of the people. At Jamestown he was met and defeated by Bacon and the army of the people, and Berkeley and his mongre army fled, leaving Jamestown in possession of Bacon. To protect Berkeley from again securing possession of Jamestown, a council of war was held, and it was resolved to burn the town. Drummond and Lawrence and other prominent patriots applied the torch to their own dwellings. Thus the first town built on this continent by Englishmen crumbled to ashes as a sacrifice to civil liberty, and all that to-day remains is the old vineclad ruin of the church tower.

It was now believed that the people of Virginia had secured the fruits of a permanent victory over usurpation, but their noble leader was soon seized with an illness which ended his brave and useful life. The tyrant Berkeley seized upon the opportunity to again possess himself of the government, and began to prosecute with fines, confiscation and death all who had sided with the patriots. The first who was condemned to death was Hansford, who was not permitted to be shot like a soldier, but was executed by hanging, being the first white native of America

who perished on the gallows. When Drummond was taken Berkeley said with an air of triumph: "You are welcome; I am more glad to see you than any man in Virginia. You shall be hanged in half an hour." Before the vengeance of Berkeley was satiated twenty-two persons were executed.

At last Berkeley left the country and returned to England; and to celebrate the departure the people built bon-fires and held a public rejoicing. In England he was received with loathing and disgust, and even King Charles exclaimed: "The old fool has taken away more lives in that naked country than I for the murder of my father."

The cup of Virginia was not yet full. In 1678 Charles gave the government of Virginia to Culpepper for life, and in 1680 he came and began enriching himself by taxing and impoverishing the people, and when he had sufficiently robbed them he took his departure, and a more impecunious and avaricious governor named Effingham succeeded him.

A new Assembly convention convened in 1688. It was "more turbulent," the governor and council said, "than any which had preceded." They paid very little attention to the unlawful orders of the magistrate, and boldly discussed the rights of citizens. The governor determined to dissolve the Assembly. The people flew to arms, and were on the verge of an open insurrection when the news came over the sea that King James had been driven from the throne. In February, 1689, William and Mary were proclaimed joint monarchs of England. From the accession of those monarchs a great change was made in the policy of the English government toward its colonies in America. From that period to the beginning of the French and Indian War at the middle of the eighteenth century the history of Virginia is the story of the steady, quiet progress of an industrious people who were ready in "the fullness of time" to join with other colonies in the establishment of a great republic.

NEW NETHERLAND—NEW YORK.

Peter Minuit was the first director-general or governor of the colony of New Netherland, with his seat of government at New Amsterdam (now New York). He was an able and energetic man, and the colony flourished under his direction. The intercourse between the Dutch and the Indians was friendly for some time. The Hollanders had extended their traffic to the upper waters of the Hudson, and built a fort on the site of Albany, called Fort Orange. Eight families had settled there. The Mohawk Indians on one side of the river and the Mohegans on the other, quarreled and went to war. The Dutch became involved in the quarrel, and the commander of the fort and three of his men were slain.

The settlers fearing massacre abandoned their farms, and with all the women in the fort removed to New Amsterdam. That was in the year 1626.

From that time, until 1628, wars with the Indians checked settlement outside the bounds of Manhattan Island. To increase the value of the province nothing seemed wiser than to increase the population; so they adopted the plan of making separate and independent colonies on the Hudson and Delaware Rivers. To enlist private capital in the undertaking it was proposed to give "patroon" privilege. This proposition was approved by the States-General in 1630; and so the feudal system as displayed by the manorial estates in Holland was transferred to America.

Governor Minuit returned to Amsterdam in 1632, leaving the province in a state of increasing prosperity. He was succeeded the following year by Walter Van Twiller, a narrow minded and inexperienced clerk in the employ of the Company. He had married a niece of one of the directors, and had no fitness for the position of governor. He was entirely ignorant of public affairs and had not a single quality of a statesman.

Van Twiller's administration lasted four years, and the colony prospered in spite of him. Just before his appointment Captain de Vries, one of the "patroons" who had an estate on the Delaware River, had sailed for Jamestown, and opened up friendly intercourse with the settlers there. On his return he sailed up the Delaware and found his affairs far from prosperous; so he abandoned the country to the Indians and sailed into the harbor of New Amsterdam, at about the time Van Twiller arrived from Amsterdam. Jacob Elkens came a few days after de Vries arrival, in the English ship *William*, with the intention of going up the Hudson to trade with the Indians. Elkens had been a former commissary at Fort Orange and knew Van Twiller at Amsterdam, and counted on his impotence. When the governor demanded his papers he refused, saying "The country belongs to England, for it was discovered by an Englishman. I command an English ship and will go where I please." De Vries advised the governor to send an expedition after the intruder, which the stupid governor did, and very soon Elkens was sent to sea with an injunction not to attempt any further interference with the Dutch on the Hudson.

The province lacked the prime element of independent farmers tilling their own land. The wealthy monopolist owned the land; the tiller might own the house he lived in—no more. There were continued disputes between the grasping "patroons" and the agents of the Company concerning the fur-trade, which each was seeking to secure. The governor had lost respect of all parties, and was simply a clog to progress. Parson Bogardus, who had come over with him from Holland, called him a "child of the devil" to his face; and he also told him on one occasion that if he did not behave himself he would give him such a "shake from the pulpit" the next Sabbath as would make him tremble like a bowl of jelly. Van Twiller was finally recalled.

In 1637, Van Twiller was succeeded by William Kieft. He has been de-

scribed as spiteful, rapacious, energetic and never so happy as when in trouble with some one; unscrupulous and a petty tyrant. He was, nevertheless, a better man for the Company than Van Twiller. He was an agitator and agitation is healthier than stagnation.

Kieft's administration was stormy, therefore a delightful one for him. He had regarded Minuit as a model governor, and Minuit for a long time was the bane of Kieft's official peace and quiet. He had just commenced his duties, as governor, when news reached him of the settlement of the Swedes, led by Minuit, on the Delaware. They had built a house and claimed the whole country westward, from Cape Henlopen to Trenton. Kieft issued a proclamation protesting against this invasion of the territory of New Netherland.

Kieft began his administration by concentrating all the power in his own hands. He reformed the abuses which abounded everywhere. Fort Amsterdam was repaired, and he caused by example and command fruit trees to be planted where there had been brambles. Police ordinances were framed and thoroughly enforced. Religion and morality was fostered for a time, and a church was built in the fort.

In 1638, the States-General compelled the Company to throw open the internal trade of the colony to free competition for all the inhabitants of Holland, under restrictions; and the governor of New Netherland was instructed to accommodate every emigrant with as much land as he and his family could cultivate. Emigrants passed into Amsterdam to seek opportunity to go to New Netherland. The Company wisely offered a free passage to respectable farmers. A good class of citizens sought homes in the colony—men of culture and fortune. De Vries, with emigrants, planted a colony on Staten Island. Strangers came from Virginia and New England, for there was freedom of conscience. The only obligation was an oath of fidelity and allegiance to Holland.

New Englanders now became trou-

blesome. They were spreading over the country westward of the Housatonic River. It being evident that they intended to push their settlements to the Hudson River Kieft, in 1640, purchased from the Indians, in the name of the States-General, all the islands near Norwalk and the domain westward, which comprised nearly the whole of Westchester County. The English disregarded the title deeds of the Indians, and the Dutch proclamations, and mocked the officials at New Amsterdam. Kieft was a more energetic man than Van Twiller. He soon put a stop to their encroachments and compelled the settlers on the newly purchased domain to take the oath of allegiance to the States-General.

Had Kieft's policy and conduct been as wise and just as it was firm and energetic his administration might have been marked by peace and great prosperity. But he pursued a policy toward the Indians that inflamed whole tribes with resentment toward the Dutch. His partiality for the Mohawks, with whom the Dutch came in contact at Fort Orange, excited the jealousy of the river Indians. They were sold rum and cheated by the traders while intoxicated. Kieft winked at these offenses and shared in the plunder. He exacted tribute from the tribes around Manhattan, and when he saw the clouds of vengeance gathering his fears awakened his cruelty.

Some swine had been stolen from De Vries' plantation on Staten Island. The innocent Raritan Indians of New Jersey were charged with the crime, and the governor sent an armed force to chastise them with a belief that a show of power would disarm the vengeance of the savages. Several Indians were killed, and all the neighboring tribes were aroused for war. The Raritans murdered the Hollanders whenever they met them in the forests, and the settlement on Staten Island was ruined.

Fifteen or twenty years before some of Minuit's men had murdered an Indian belonging to a tribe beyond the Harlem River. His nephew, then a boy, made a vow of vengeance. He was

now a lusty man. He proceeded to execute his vow by murdering an unoffending Dutchman in his wheelwright shop high upon Manhattan Island. With his scalp and the plunder of his dwelling the savage returned to his tribe in triumph.

Kieft demanded the murderer, but the chief would not give him up, saying he had been revenged according to the customs of his race.

It was now evident to the people that it was the rapacity and greed of Kieft that caused all the trouble. They reproached him for his selfish cowardice, they blamed him, who had not slept out of the fort a single night since his arrival, for endangering their lives and homes in undefended places. In order to get the good will of the people, and to carry out his designs, he now called the heads of families to meet him in convention. They assembled at Fort Amsterdam and chose twelve men as their representatives. So were planted the seed of a representative democracy in New Netherland, and the first congress for political purposes in the year 1641, almost on the spot where Washington, a century and a half later, was inaugurated first President of the United States.

De Vries was chosen president, and the twelve counselled peace and proceeded to establish a government similar to that of the Fatherland. Kieft now agreed to make popular concessions if the Twelve would allow him to make war on the offending Indians. When they agreed to his proposition the governor dissolved them, saying he had no further use for them, and forbade any popular assemblage thereafter.

In 1642, a treaty was made with the offending tribes. In the winter of 1643, the fierce Iroquois invaded the country of the Indians on the lower Hudson, who sought the protection of the Dutch. De Vries now counselled was the time to make enduring peace with these Indians, but was overruled by Kieft and some leading citizens. In February, 1643, Kieft sent an armed force against

these natives, and they were massacred, men, women and children.

This treachery aroused the fury of the savages far and near, and for two years a devastating war was waged. The white people were butchered wherever found, and the colony was on the verge of ruin. The people had now lost all confidence in the governor, and demanded his recall. This was granted, and the colonists saw him depart in the spring of 1647. The vessel in which Kieft sailed was lost, and the governor perished.

The new governor, Peter Stuyvesant, arrived in New Netherland late in May, 1647. He was then a man in the prime of life, physically strong, stern and inflexible, but a just and honest man. He had lost a leg in an attack on the Portuguese, and had a wooden one, all covered with silver bands in place of it. He commenced his administration by reforming all the most flagrant abuses of the colony. His kindness to the Indians soon won their friendship and confidence. He found the finances of the colony in such a low state that taxation was imperative. Knowing that taxation was imperative without representation had been considered as tyranny in Holland for two centuries he dared not tax the people without their consent, although he was by nature a despot. He therefore called a convention of citizens to represent the taxpayers, but he was careful to hedge them about with restrictions. Nine were to be selected, who were to be a co-ordinate part of the government.

By prudent and adroit management Stuyvesant soon swept away annoyances in the shape of territorial claims. In 1647, a representative of Lord Stirling landed on Long Island and set up a claim as governor. He was arrested, sent to Holland, but allowed to escape.

In 1650, by a treaty at Hartford, he settled all the disputes with the New Englanders. He now went with an expedition against the Swedes on the Delaware, built Fort Cassimer, near the site of New Castle, Delaware, and crossed the river to New Jersey at Fort

Nassau. He had obtained from the Indians a deed to all the land occupied by the Swedes. The Swedish governor protested in vain. The two magistrates promised to keep neighborly friendship and correspondence together. That was in the year 1651.

The next year the colonists of New Amsterdam were granted a charter like the free cities of Holland, the officers to be appointed by the governor, and in 1653 it was organized as a city.

To escape the intolerance of the authorities English families had been coming to New Netherland for several years. Land was freely granted to them, and an English secretary appointed. They had intermarried with the Dutch, and formed strong allies of the Nine. The arbitrary and despotic rule of Stuyvesant, although an honest man and believing in his convictions, fostered the growth of Republicanism.

That popular feeling had expression when, late in the autumn of 1653, a convention of Nineteen delegates assembled in New Amsterdam ostensibly to take measures to secure themselves against the savages and pirates. The governor tried to control their actions, but they paid no attention to him. He saw it would be prudent to yield to the demands of the people to call another convention, so he gave legal sanction to the election of delegates thereto. These met in New Amsterdam on the 10th of December, 1653. There were ten Dutch and nine English delegates.

The object of the convention was to form and adopt a remonstrance against the tyrannous rule of the governor. It was drawn by Baxter, the English secretary. Stuyvesant met this with his usual pluck, and ordered them to disperse, but the convention was not to be silenced, and they sent an advocate to Holland to ask for the reforms. The Swedes now sent an expedition to the Delaware. They captured Fort Cassimer, and changed its name to Fort Trinity. The surrender occurred on Trinity Sunday, 1654.

In September of the following year (1655) with seven vessels and more

than six hundred soldiers, Stuyvesant sailed from New Amsterdam. They arrived in the Delaware and retook Fort Cassimer without a struggle. The captives were wisely made citizens of New Netherland, and they became loyal friends of the Dutch.

When Stuyvesant returned to Manhattan he found the wildest confusion. Van Dyck, a former civil officer, had killed a squaw detected stealing peaches from his garden. The fury of her tribe was kindled. The Indians found and killed Van Dyck, and ravaged New Jersey and Staten Island. Stuyvesant soon brought order, and prevented a like calamity by ordering those who lived in secluded places to gather in villages "after the fashion of their New England neighbors." New Netherlands now prospered in quiet for almost ten years.

This whole country had been assigned, by Charles the Second of England, to his brother, the Duke of York. Including Long Island and a part of Connecticut, with the authority to take possession and hold the territory. Four ships of war, bearing four hundred and fifty soldiers commanded by Colonel Richard Nicolls, arrived before New Amsterdam at the close of August, 1664. Stuyvesant had just brought a war with the Indians above the highlands of the Hudson to a close, and was then at Fort Orange. When he heard the news of the invasion of the English he hastened back to his capital, where he received a formal notice to surrender the fort and city. Nicolls also sent a proclamation to the citizens, promising perfect security of person and property to all who should quietly submit to English rule. The magistrates and burghers were anxious to submit, as their force was not strong enough to make any resistance successful. Stuyvesant held out for a week and surrendered on the 8th of September, 1664.

The fort was renamed Fort James, and the city and province to New York, in honor of the Duke of York. Colonel Nicolls was proclaimed deputy-governor, and all officers were required to take the oath of allegiance to the Brit-

ish crown. So passed into history the domination of the Dutch in America, after an existence of half a century. England was now the mistress of all the domain on the Atlantic coast from Florida to Acadie. At the end of the war between the Dutch and English in 1667, Stuyvesant was granted by King Charles of England trading privileges with New York for seven years. He returned to his old home in New York, where he was cordially welcomed, and enjoyed on his farm the peace and quiet of a domestic life. There he died in 1682. Stuyvesant, known as Peter the Headstrong, left his mark as a strong and courageous man.

Nicolls ruled wisely, and his successor, Francis Lovelace, in 1667, ruled mildly. Although he showed considerable energy in dealing with the French and hostile Indians on the northern frontier of New York. In the summer of 1672 a Dutch squadron sailed into the harbor of New York and demanded its surrender. There was war again between the Dutch and English. On the 9th of August, 1672, New York passed into the hands of the Dutch, and in a short time the whole of the province followed. At the treaty of peace, made in London early in 1674, the province again was restored to the British crown.

In June, 1674, King Charles gave the Duke of York a new grant of territory, which consisted of all the domain west of the Connecticut River, to the eastern shore of the Delaware; also Long Island and a territory in Maine.

Major Edmund Andros was appointed governor. He was then about thirty-seven years of age, a thorough royalist, a good Dutch and French scholar. His private character was without blemish, and he was well fitted for the part he was about to play. He soon became known in the province as the "tyrant." With all their political disabilities under Andros the people were prosperous and therefore comparatively happy.

He was succeeded in 1683 by Thomas Dongan, a Roman Catholic. He was a mild mannered and enlightened

Irishman, and under instructions from the Duke of York, granted the people the right to elect an Assembly of Representatives. On the 17th of October, 1683, the first General Assembly of the Province of New York was in session at New York.

When the Duke of York ascended the throne of England as King James the Second, in 1685, he immediately demolished civil and religious liberty in New York. A direct tax was ordered; the printing press was forbidden a place in the colony. He determined to establish the Roman Catholic religion, and all the provincial offices were filled with adherents of that church. He tried to introduce French priests among the Iroquois, but fortunately for the English it did not succeed, and they stood, in after years, a powerful barrier between the French and English.

Dongan stood by the people and the interests of England, that finally offended the monarch. He was dismissed from office, and Andros appointed in his place, and the government consolidated with that of New England in the spring of the year 1688.

When James was driven from the throne of England William and Mary succeeded him. When the news reached New England Andros and his political associates were seized at Boston and sent to England. Fort James was seized in New York, and Jacob Leisler, an influential merchant and commander of militia took an active part. He was a German colonist, a Presbyterian, an admirer of William of Orange, but with democratic tendencies. A provisional government was organized, and Leisler made governor until a regularly authorized one should be appointed. Leisler had considerable opposition in the colony, and did not show good judgment in the treatment of his political enemies. The awful destruction of Schenectady by the Indians in February, 1690, united the people in common defense, and the authority of Leisler was acknowledged.

Henry Sloughter was appointed governor of New York by the crown, and on his arrival, in March, 1691, arrested

Leisler, Milbourne and six others for high treason. They were tried, convicted, and condemned to be hanged. They appealed to the King. Slough-ter was prevailed to sign their death warrant while intoxicated, and they were hanged. It was murder, and when Slough-ter came to his senses, he was so tortured with remorse for his act that he died in three months, of *delirium tremens*.

Four years afterward the British Parliament passed an act declaring them innocent of treason. From that hour republicanism grew vigorously in New York, and gave future royal governors a great deal of trouble.

Benjamin Fletcher succeeded Slough-ter as governor of New York. He was also appointed commander of the militia of Connecticut, New York and New Jersey. He disgusted all parties by his recklessness, and caused more resistance to the royal power than ever before. He visited Hartford in the autumn of 1693 and attempted to call out the militia. They paid no attention to him. He compromised by making Fletcher commander of the Connecticut militia only in time of war.

The French and Indians under Count Frontenac, were seeking a passage through the Five Nations to the English settlements below. Mayor Schuyler, of Albany, who had great influence over the Iroquois, led an expedition, with about three hundred English and as many Mohawk warriors, against the foe. They beat the French back to the St. Lawrence, and so desolated the French settlements around Lake Champlain, that Frontenac was glad to remain quiet at Montreal.

During the whole of the seven years of Fletcher's administration, the Assembly was in constant opposition to him, although filled with the bitter enemies of Leisler. And when he was superseded by the Earl of Bellamont, in 1698, he seemed as glad to leave the province as the people were to get rid of him.

Bellamont was an honest and energetic Irish peer. He knew the circum-

stances and causes of the trial and death of Leisler. He settled the differences of factions, opened the way for just legislation, and reformed abuses in public affairs. Through the influence of Bellamont, and a letter from the King, the Assembly, in 1700, confirmed the verdict of Parliament in favor of the innocence of Leisler and granted indemnity to his family. During this time, English commerce suffered greatly from French privateers and pirates. A company was formed of which Bellamont was the American member, to suppress them. Captain Kidd, of New York, was duly commissioned as commander of a vessel, called the *Adventure*, by the King. He sailed under the orders of this Company and did much to suppress these sea-robbers and to protect English commerce in American waters. Kidd collected about one hundred and fifty men under him, sailed into the Indian Ocean and turned pirate himself. His acts became so scandalous that when he returned to America he was arrested, sent to England and hanged. It was believed at the time that Bellamont was his business partner, and that the Company shared in his plunders. This cast a cloud over the character and otherwise good conduct of his administration as governor.

Sir Edward Hyde, uncle of Queen Anne, was the next governor, and on occasions was a persistent enemy of popular freedom and a religious bigot. In 1705, the Assembly obtained the right from the Queen to make appropriations of money, and appoint their own treasurer. In 1708, the Queen yielded to the wishes of the people and recalled Hyde. From this time until 1732, democratic principles were allowed to grow and flourish, and friendship between the English and the Five Nations, which had been disturbed, was restored.

Robert Hunter was the next governor, and during his administration three thousand German Lutherans, from the Palatinate of the Rhine, settled in different parts of New York and Pennsylvania. They were chiefly

the ancestors of the German population of the latter state.

William Burnet succeeded Hunter. While he was governor, William Bradford, in the autumn of 1725, established the first public newspaper in New York. John Montgomery succeeded Burnet, in 1728. He died in 1731, when Rip Van Dam, the senior member of the council, took charge of public affairs until the arrival of William Cosby as governor, in 1732.

Cosby's first act as governor was the bringing of a law-suit against Van Dam, for one-half the salary he had received while acting-governor. The court being the governor's personal friends gave judgment against Van Dam, with the exception of the Chief-Justice Morris, who decided against the governor. He was removed without consulting the council, and James DeLancey put in his place.

The sympathies of the people were with Van Dam, and they induced John Peter Zenger, who had been an apprentice and business partner with Bradford, to establish a newspaper to be the organ of the democratic party. In November, 1733, he published the "New York Weekly Journal," with Van Dam behind him as financial supporter. Bradford's paper was then controlled by the government.

The "Journal" made vigorous warfare upon the governor and his political friends. It finally charged them with violating the rights of the people, and the perversion of their official stations for selfish purposes. In the autumn of 1734, Zenger was arrested for libel, and kept in jail until the next August, when he was brought to trial. The case caused intense excitement throughout the country, because it involved the great question of liberty of speech and of the press.

An association known as the "Sons of Liberty" obtained the services of Andrew Hamilton, of Philadelphia, then eighty years of age and the foremost lawyer in the country, to defend him. Zenger was acquitted, and this triumph of the popular cause—this vindication of the freedom of the press—

this evidence of the people to protect their champions, and this success of an organization in its infancy, which appeared in power thirty years later under the same name of "Sons of Liberty," was a sure prophecy of that political independence of the colonies which was so speedily fulfilled.

From the arrival of Cosby until the beginning of the French and Indian War, at the middle of the century, the history of the province of New York is composed chiefly of party strife.

NEW ENGLAND.

William Bradford was the successor of John Carver, the earliest governor of the Plymouth Colony, and the first historian of Massachusetts.

He was born in Ansterfield, Yorkshire, in the north of England, in the year 1588. From early life he had been accustomed to the teachings of the Puritans, and attempted to fly to his persecuted brethren in the Netherlands, when only seventeen years of age. Betrayed, he was seized and imprisoned at Boston, in Lincolnshire, for awhile, but escaped and joined the fugitives at Amsterdam, where he learned the silk weaver's art and pursued that occupation. He lost his patrimony in unsuccessful business ventures, and when the establishment of a free colony in America was projected at Leyden, he was one of the most zealous prompters of the measure; and he and his young wife were among the earliest emigrants to that land of promise. Mrs. Bradford was the first death among the Pilgrims, after their arrival. While still riding at anchor in Cape Cod Bay, before a settlement was selected, she fell into the sea and was drowned. Shrewd, wise, active, humane and generous, Bradford was very popular; and he was in the chair of state almost continuously from 1621 until his death in 1657, a period of thirty-six years.

The Pilgrims of Plymouth, in the autumn of 1621, rejoiced in an abundance of food, it being the first year of their settlement. Thereby their hearts were filled with gratitude, and after the

fruits of their labor had all been gathered, the governor sent out hunters to bring in supplies for a general and common thanksgiving. That was the first celebration of the great New England festival of Thanksgiving, now annually held in almost every state and territory of the Union in the month of November. Great quantities of wild turkeys and deer were gathered at Plymouth, and for three days the Pilgrims indulged in rejoicing, firing of guns and feasting—entertaining at the same time, King Massasoit and ninety of his dusky followers, who contributed five deer to the banquets.

A second ship had arrived during the summer, among the new-comers was the Rev. Robert Cushman, one of the founders of the colony, who, in December, 1621, preached the first sermon in New England.

Governor Bradford had already secured the friendship of Massasoit, and his people; but Canonicus, the chief of the Narragansets, living on Canonicut Island, opposite the site of Newport, was loth to be friendly at first. To show his contempt for and defiance of the English, he sent a messenger to Governor Bradford with a bundle of arrows in a rattlesnake skin. That was in the dead of winter, 1622. It was a challenge to engage in war in the spring. Bradford acted wisely on the occasion. He accepted the challenge to fight the multitude of savages by sending the significant quiver back, filled with gunpowder and shot. The savages had heard of the great guns at the seaside, and they dared not keep the symbols of the governor's anger, but sent them back to Plymouth in token of peace. Canonicus subdued, he and the other chiefs humbly begged the English for friendship. The English built a fort which served as a meeting house, and in April, when they received the news of the massacre by the Indians in Virginia, they kept their houses barricaded and a careful watch was constantly kept.

Not long after this, the first war between the English and savages broke out. Weston, a wealthy and dissatis-

fied member of the Plymouth Company, sent over a colony of sixty unmarried men to plant a settlement on his own account, somewhere on the shores of Massachusetts Bay. They were mostly idle and dissolute young men, and after living several weeks upon the scanty means of the Plymouth families, they went to the site of Weymouth, where they began a settlement. They exasperated the Indians by plundering their corn fields, and other sources of supplies. The savages, fearing the vengeance of the white people should they destroy the young men at Weymouth, determined to exterminate all the English in the land. Massasoit revealed the plot to the English, and the Plymouth people immediately sent Captain Standish, with a few soldiers, to protect the offending Englishmen, and in a contest that ensued an Indian chief and several of his followers were killed. The Indians were very much frightened, and sued for peace. The colony at Weymouth, too weak to endure was broken up a year after it was planted, and the most worthless of its members returned to England.

At the end of seven years, the colonists purchased the interest of the partners in London, in the colony, and general prosperity was soon manifested. The community system, or the common sharing of labor and its products was abandoned, the cultivators of the soil became freeholders. The restless enterprise of the Pilgrims compelled them to obtain other landed possessions. They acquired the right of domain on Cape Anne and on the borders of the Kennebec. The colony had been spared the affliction of a governor sent from England, and had from the beginning enjoyed self-government without the royal sanction. That government was simple. At first the only officers were a governor and one assistant magistrate. In 1624, five assistants were chosen, in 1630, when the colony numbered five hundred souls, seven assistants were chosen by the whole people. This pure democracy existed at Plymouth until 1639, a per-

iod of nineteen years, when a representative government was established, and a pastor was chosen as a spiritual guide. Mr. Robinson, although in Holland, was regarded as the head of the Puritans in New England, until his death in 1625; but he was never allowed to emigrate to America, through the influence of the London partners of the colony with the crown and Church of England.

Two independent colonies had been planted during this time, one at Weston, and the other where Gloucester now stands, both failed. The latter had been attempted by the Rev. John White. With several other powerful citizens, White, in 1628, formed a company and purchased a tract of land extending from three miles north of the Merrimac River to three miles south of the Charles River, and westward to the Pacific Ocean.

In the summer of that year, the Company sent John Endicott, one of their number (including his wife and children) with emigrants, to settle on the domain. Endicott was commissioned governor or general manager of the colony; and then he began his long and eventful career in New England. He was then forty years of age; possessed of an imperious and unyielding will; was a most rigid Puritan in thought and manner, benevolent though austere and was intolerant of all dissenting opinions.

Endicott settled at Naumkeag, where some of White's men from Cape Anne were seated. The place was named *Salem*, the Hebrew word for "peaceful." There he soon displayed his stern opposition to all vain amusements, by causing a May-pole to be cut down.

Several persons of wealth and influence in Boston, Lincolnshire, and elsewhere, joined the colony, early in 1629, and in March a royal charter was granted, creating them a corporation under the name of "The Governor and Company of the Massachusetts Bay, in New England." The administration of public affairs was intrusted to a governor, deputy, and eighteen assistants

or magistrates, who were to be elected annually by the stockholders of the Company. A general assembly of the freemen was to be held at least four times a year to legislate for the colony. The King claimed no jurisdiction, for he regarded the whole affair as a trading operation. The charter conferred upon the colonists of Massachusetts Bay all the rights of English subjects, without exacting many corresponding duties; and it was afterward used as a text for many powerful discourses against the usurpations of royalty.

The Company was careful to make ample provisions for the spiritual affairs of the colony, and sent three ministers—Skelton, Higginson and Bright—to Salem, that summer, with two hundred additional settlers. A church society was organized, and Samuel Skelton, with Francis Higginson as assistant, was appointed pastor. An invitation was sent to the Plymouth people to be present. Governor Bradford and others joined the society, and so was founded the first church in New England. They said they were not Separatists from the Church of England, but a better part of it. Yet to all outward things they were Separatists. Two brothers, named Browne, were sent back to England for worshipping according to the Church of England, and the Company did not disclaim the act.

This high-handed act, unproved, established the fact that the authorities of Massachusetts might, at their discretion, exclude all persons from the colony who did not conform to the pattern of morals and religion prescribed by the governor and ministers. This was the beginning of the blind intolerance of the Puritans of Massachusetts which appears as a dark stain on the annals of New England.

The government of the colony was transferred from the Company to the people on the 29th of August, 1629, establishing a democracy like that at Plymouth. This act gave a mighty impulse to emigration to Massachusetts. The old officers resigned and John Winthrop was chosen governor,

Thomas Dudley, a veteran soldier, deputy-governor. Eighteen assistants were also chosen.

Winthrop was then forty-two years of age. He was a native of Groton, Suffolk County, where he had considerable landed property. He was a lawyer and learned in statesmanship, polished in manners and had been in the society of men eminent in church and state. Dudley was well along in years and had served under Henry the Fourth, of France. The assistants were all noted men.

Winthrop and his companions, consisting of about three hundred families, arrived at Salem, in June, 1630. They found neither a church or a town. A rather stately house where the governor lived, and a few hovels among cornfields. Death had been busy among the old settlers during the previous winter. Provisions were scarce. Disease attacked the new-comers, and before the close of autumn, two hundred had died.

The colonists now sought more attractive places for settlement than Salem. Some went to the present sites of Charlestown, Dorchester, Roxbury, Watertown and Cambridge. It was proposed to found the capital of the colony at Charlestown, but the unwholesome water induced them to remove to the peninsula of Shawmut, the present site of Boston, where they found an abundance of pure spring water. The capital was named Boston, in commemoration of the native place of some of the emigrants from Lincolnshire, in England. At the close of the year 1630, a large number of emigrants had arrived.

The people well knew the tendency toward tyranny, of men exercising unrestrained control, so, in May, 1631, it was agreed that all the officers of the government should be chosen annually by the freemen of the colony. These consisted of only men who were members in good standing of some church. This was an attempt to establish a religious aristocracy to control the state.

There was another change in 1634,

when a representative government was established, the second in America. There were now eight distinct settlements in Massachusetts, and the growth of the colony was now more rapid and sturdy than that of Plymouth. Winthrop, whom the people re-elected, ruled wisely. He cultivated the friendship of the surrounding Indians, and also with the neighboring settlements and distant colonies. He visited Governor Bradford at Plymouth, and exchanged friendly communications with New Netherland about the occupation of part of the Connecticut Valley. His policy was peace and good-fellowship.

The intolerance of the authorities of Massachusetts, in church and state, almost put an end to emigration, until the religious persecutions in England against all Non-conformists gave an amazing impetus to emigration to America.

During the year 1635, three thousand new settlers went to Massachusetts, among whom were men of wealth, influence, and distinction. Among these men Hugh Peters, an eloquent Puritan preacher, and Harry Vane, then twenty-five years of age, took a conspicuous part in the affairs of the colony.

The rigid discipline and the intemperate zeal of the Massachusetts authorities, under Endicott, in their proceedings against those who did not conform to their teachings, aroused both church and state in England. Orders were issued to the authorities of Massachusetts to produce their charter before the Privy Council in England. This was followed, in the spring of 1634, by an arbitrary commission with Loud, the prelate of England at their head. He and his associates received full power over the American colonies to organize new governments and dictate laws; to regulate public worship, and to inflict punishment and revoke charters.

When the news reached New England, with a rumor that a viceroy was on his way, it was resolved not to receive a governor appointed by the crown, and to resist as long as possible.

It was at this time that the great emigration just spoken of took place.

Hugh Peters, on his arrival at Boston, was made pastor of the church vacated by Roger Williams, when he was banished, whose doctrines he denounced, and whose followers he expelled from the church.

Vane was the son of one of the King's high officers of state, and a young man of purest morals. He had fled to New England to enjoy the freedom of worship among those whose cause he had espoused. He was regarded as the forerunner of the speedy emigration to Massachusetts of leading men of the realm.

He was received with open arms, and the colonists, forgetting their old leaders, elected him governor of the colony. He defended the broad views of Mr. Williams and Mrs. Hutchinson, and a strong opposition was organized against him. After a tempestuous year, Vane was defeated at the next annual election, when he returned to England.

Soon after Vane's departure, Mrs. Hutchinson was banished and she settled in Rhode Island. Then to be entirely free from religious bigotry, she settled near the present village of New Rochelle, in West Chester County, in, what was then, New Netherland. When the Indians made war upon the Dutch, in revenge for the cruelties suffered by them under Governor Kieft, Mrs. Hutchinson and her family were not spared. The Indians, in their blind fury, swept through the forests, and she and her family were murdered, with the exception of her grandchild, who was made captive. The child, fair and curly-haired and eight years of age, was tenderly cared for by the savages. When four years afterwards, little Anna Collins was delivered to the Dutch governor at New Amsterdam to be returned to her friends at Boston, in accordance with the terms of a treaty, she had forgotten her own language and was unwilling to leave her Indian friends.

A confederation of New England colonies for mutual defense had been

proposed by Connecticut immediately after the war with the Pequods. In 1638, when the crown threatened to deprive Massachusetts of her charter, the other colonies counselled resistance, and the people from the Bay threatened secession from the British realm. The civil war in Old England broke out in 1641, and the people of New England relieved from royal displeasure, resolved to unite in a political league. They very soon agreed upon twelve articles of Confederation, and constituted a confederacy under the title of "The United Colonies of New England." That written agreement was signed on the 20th of August, 1643, by deputies from Plymouth, Connecticut, New Haven and Massachusetts, at Boston. Rhode Island and the settlements in New Hampshire and Maine were not admitted on account of their liberty of conscience in religious matters.

This famous league, of which Massachusetts assumed control, because of its greater population, and its being a "perfect republic," remained in existence more than forty years, during which period the government of England was changed three times. They found in Oliver Cromwell a sincere friend and protector.

The colony of Massachusetts in particular, prospered. The trade with the West Indies brought gold and silver bullion into the colony, and led to an act of sovereignty on the part of the authorities in 1652, by the establishment of a mint. This was the first coinage within the territory of the United States.

The laws of the Puritans in those days, in relation to religion, were very strict. Their iron rule was condemned at the time, and has been ever since. Their persecutions of the Friends or Quakers, fully proved their bigotry and austerity. These people had amongst them members, who, by their intemperate zeal, offended the authorities, and they were compelled to suffer imprisonment, banishment and death. The severity of the laws against them lasted from 1656 until 1661, when a

revulsion was caused in public sentiment, and the laws were repealed.

At the restoration of the monarchy in England, in May, 1660, the members of Parliament, who had signed the death warrant of Charles the First, were hunted by the royal vengeance. Among those who fled to New England were Edward Whalley and William Goffe. The former was a cousin of Cromwell, and a distinguished cavalry officer. Goffe was Whalley's son-in-law and had been a colonel of infantry. These regicides, as they were called, were closely hunted, but the people of New England effectually concealed them. It is related that soon after the arrival of General Goffe, at Boston, a fencing master defied anyone to fight him with swords. Goffe accepted the challenge. He wrapped a huge cheese in a cloth as a shield, and arming himself with a mop filled with muddy water, he appeared on the platform erected for the contest. The fencing master made a thrust at him which Goffe received in the cheese, in which he held the sword until he had smeared his antagonist with mud. The enraged fencing master caught up a broad sword, when Goffe exclaimed: "Stop, sir; hitherto, you see, I have only played with you, but if you come at me now with the broadsword, know that I will certainly take your life." The alarmed fencing master cried out, as he dropped his sword, "Who can you be? You must be either Goffe, or Whalley, or the Devil, for there were no other men in England who could beat me."

The New England colonies, especially Massachusetts, expected very little favors from the new monarch, Charles the Second, for their republicanism was decided and conspicuous.

They sent agents to London to persuade the King of their loyalty, at the same time to secure their independence in local affairs, as a self-governing people. It was a difficult task, but John Newton and Simon Bradstreet successfully performed it. In the autumn of 1662, the King confirmed the Massachusetts charter, and granted a condi-

tional amnesty or general pardon for all past offenses in the civil war; at the same time the King asserted his right to interfere with the domestic concerns of the colony.

False stories were carried to the King, leading him to believe that there was a rebellion in the colonies, and there was a general belief in London, for awhile, that Whalley and Goffe were at the head of a New England army, and that the New England Confederacy had been formed for the express purpose of casting off all dependence on the mother country and establishing a republic in America. In 1664, when the English fleet was sent to take possession of New Netherland, under command of Colonel Nicholls. Commissioners were sent, Colonel Nicholls being one of the members, to rule New England as deputies of the monarch. All the colonies protested except Rhode Island. The acts and orders of the commissioners were disregarded, and the democratic spirit throughout New England was stimulated. They departed in 1666, leaving the colonies triumphant. Massachusetts ever afterwards held a front rank in the sturdy battle for independence which was waged for more than a hundred years. At about the time when she triumphed over the efforts of the Crown to enslave her, she was involved in a most disastrous war with Metacomet, or King Philip, a son of the dead Massasoit. That contest is known in our history as King Philip's War.

Massasoit died in 1661, at the age of eighty years, leaving two sons whom the English called, respectively, Alexander and Philip. The former did not long survive his father, when Philip became chief sachem and warrior of the Wampanoags, with his royal residence on Mount Hope, not far from Bristol, Rhode Island. He was called *King Philip*. He resumed the treaty made by his father, and observed it faithfully a dozen years.

Massasoit saw, before his death, that the Indians would soon be deprived of their lands, and become vassals of the

pale race. Philip, being more warlike, pondered with deep bitterness these possibilities. He resolved to strike an exterminating blow against the English in defence of his country and race. His resolution was natural and patriotic. The number of his own warriors being inadequate, he planned a confederacy of the New England tribes, which might have numbered twenty-five thousand souls. Before any actual conspiracy was effected, Philip found himself compelled to declare war and lift the hatchet.

There were many Christian converts among the Indians, who were firmly attached to the English. A converted Wampanoag, John Sassamon, who had been educated at Cambridge, where John Harvard had established a college, was a sort of secretary to Philip. He revealed to the authorities at Plymouth the conspiracy, and was murdered for his treachery. Three Wampanoags, who were convicted of the crime on very slender testimony were hanged. The anger of the tribe was fiercely kindled by the event, and they were clamorous for war. Philip knew his weakness and hesitated. The young warriors of the tribe demanded war, and taunted him with causing all their wrongs, by allowing, a few years before, the jealous white man to take all their firearms away from them. This enraged Philip, and he started his warriors on the war-path. It was but the storm in which the ancient inhabitants of the land were to vanish away. They rose without hope, and therefore they fought without mercy.

On the 4th of July, 1675, Swanzey, twenty-five miles southwest from Plymouth, was attacked. Many of the inhabitants were killed, and the rest fled to the surrounding settlements. The country was aroused. Armed men from Plymouth, Boston, and other places near, joined, and making a forced march toward Mount Hope, besieged the Wampanoags in a swamp several days. Philip escaped with most of his followers, and took refuge with the Nipmucs in the interior of Massachusetts, who espoused his cause. At

the head of fifteen hundred warriors he pressed through the forests to the beautiful valley of the Connecticut to lay waste the settlements there.

Meanwhile, the Narragansets were compelled to make a treaty with the English, by armed force. When Philip heard of this he was amazed. His stout heart almost failed. He now saw that it was only vigorous action that could save him. He aroused other tribes to join him in exterminating the pale-faces by the methods of treachery, ambush and surprise. The scourge that now appeared was terrible. Men in the fields, families in their beds at mid-night, and congregations in houses of worship, were murdered. The English settlements east of the Hudson then numbered about fifty thousand souls, and, at one time, it seemed probable that few of them would escape the fury of the savages. The Connecticut Valley was desolated from Springfield, northward almost to the present line between Massachusetts and Vermont. Brookfield was burned, and early in September a hot battle was fought at Deerfield, where seven hundred Indians were defeated by one hundred and eighty Englishmen; but a week later, prowling savages laid the town in ashes. On the same day—Sunday—Hadley was attacked, but was saved by the bravery of Goffe. A few days after, Springfield was burned and a small body of young men were murdered by several hundred Indians, on the banks of a little stream near Deerfield, now known as Bloody Brook.

The Indians were now masters of the situation, and Philip, encouraged by his successes, now resolved to attack Hatfield, the chief settlement above Springfield. In October, Philip, with the help of new allies from Indians who had been friendly with the English had one thousand warriors. He attacked Hatfield, but the people were prepared, and he was driven off with great slaughter of the Indians. Philip left the Connecticut Valley, with his shattered forces, and fled to Rhode Island. The Narragansets, in violation of their treaty with the English,

received him with open arms, became his allies, and, late in the year, went out upon the war-path with him. For this perfidy the Narragansets were terribly punished. Massachusetts, Plymouth and Connecticut gathered together, under Captain Josiah Winslow, fifteen hundred armed men. They marched into the Narraganset country. Snow had fallen to a great depth, and the savages felt secure for the season. Suddenly, at near the close of December, Winslow and his little army appeared before the fort of the Indians, which was in a swamp near the present village of Kingston, Rhode Island. The English captured the fort and in a few hours hundreds of men, women and children perished in the fire, and over a thousand warriors were killed or wounded and several hundred taken prisoners, among whom was Canonchet, the chief, who was put to death. Philip, and a remnant of the Narragansets escaped, and took refuge with the Nipmucs. So disappeared the dominion of the Narragansets.

Philip, during the winter, induced some of the exasperated Indians east of Massachusetts to join his standard. He also tried his influence with the powerful Mohawks, but they stood firm in their friendship with the English. Early in the spring of 1676 the work of destruction began. Villages and isolated dwellings were burned, and their inmates destroyed. Weymouth, Groton, Medford, Lancaster and Marlborough, in Massachusetts, were laid in ashes; and Warwick and Providence, in Rhode Island, were given to the flames.

Quarrels among themselves soon weakened the power of the Indians. The Nipmuc and the Narragansets charged their misfortunes to the ambition of Philip. The alliance was dissolved. The eastern Indians hastened to their mountain fastnesses. Many who had been in arms surrendered to avoid starvation. Others went to Canada and joined tribes there; and Captain Benjamin Church, the most famous Indian fighter of his day,

hunted and slew all the hostile red men he could find.

Philip eluded his pursuers for many months, hiding in many places, with a resolution never to surrender. His wife and son were captured, and a few days afterward a faithless Indian shot him in a swamp when Captain Church was close upon his track.

Philip's son, the heir to Massasoit, was sold as a bond slave in Bermuda. So perished the dynasty of the good Massasoit, and so ended the famous *King Philip's War*. The war was carried on a little longer by the Eastern Indians, for they drew their supplies from the French, in Acadie. Finally, in 1678, hostilities were ended by a treaty.

About this time the English government attempted to carry out a long cherished desire of the King to resume control of the colony. They sent Edward Randolph, a greedy adventurer to collect the customs at Boston, and to exercise other authority as agent of the crown. Randolph excited the cupidity, fears and jealousy of the King, by exaggerating the population, wealth, power and independence of the colony. The governor (Leverett) was firm in his opposition to Randolph's pretensions. When Randolph, by royal authority, declared the charter of Massachusetts void, and attempted to govern, the people spurned him. The King now intended to take possession of the domain, under a decision of the High Court of Chancery, when he died. That was early in 1685.

The Duke of York now ascended the throne of England as James the Second. He declared the charter of Massachusetts to be void, and appointed Joseph Dudley president of the country from Rhode Island to Nova Scotia.

Edmund Andros succeeded Dudley. He arrived in Boston late in 1686, bearing the commission of viceroy or governor-general of all New England. He abridged the freedom of the press; interfered with marriage contracts—levied "blackmail"—advanced the fees

of all officers of the government, and threatened to make the Church of England the established religion in all America. The people of Massachusetts resented his conduct, and were about to drive him from the colony by force of arms when news came to Boston in May, 1689, that James had been driven from the throne.

The people immediately reinstated Simon Bradstreet as governor. He had been deposed by Andros. Andros and about fifty of his most obnoxious associates were arrested and cast into prison. In May, William and Mary were proclaimed King and Queen in the colony; and from their sovereigns the provisional government of Massachusetts received a letter sanctioning their late proceedings, and directing them to send Andros to England to answer the charges preferred against him.

War began in this year between England and France, and soon extended to their colonies in America. This conflict lasted seven years, and is known in our history as King William's War.

The power of France had been carried into the American continent by a Roman Catholic religious society, known as the *Order of Jesuits*. They regarded as a brother every man without respect to skin or lineage; and the French Jesuits who were the pioneers of French dominion in America regarded every convert to Christianity among the savages an enfranchised citizen of France. Whole tribes came under their sway, and many of the traders made wives of the Indian maidens, and so established strong social ties between the French and the savages. The French could rely on the Indians as allies, which made border wars for the New England colonists tenfold more distressing. New York had the powerful Iroquois Confederacy, like a strong wall, between themselves and the Indians of Canada.

Dover, a frontier town of New Hampshire, was the first to feel the violent hands of the mongrel foe. In July, 1689, it was taken by the French and Indians, twenty of the garrison

were killed, and thirty persons taken prisoners and sold as slaves to the French in Canada. In August the garrison at Pemaquid was captured. In February following, Governor Frontenac sent three hundred French and Indians from Montreal to destroy Albany. They made their way as far as Schenectady, burned the dwellings and murdered more than sixty of the inhabitants there. Seventeen of the slain were children. Early the next spring several eastern villages suffered the same fate, and scores of women and children were carried away as captives and suffered untold cruelties.

Massachusetts sent an expedition against the French early in 1690, under Sir William Phipps. He seized Port Royal, and plundered the town. In June, English privateers again plundered the town. In the preceding May a Congress of the colonies met at New York, and resolved to invade Canada by land and sea. The army was under command of a son of Governor Winthrop, of Connecticut. It was the end of September before the army reached the head of Lake Champlain, Colonel Peter Schuyler with some troops and Indians from the Five Nations pushed on toward the St. Lawrence. Schuyler was repulsed by Frontenac and the whole army returned to Albany. The fleet under Phipps made an expedition against Quebec, but believing the fortifications of the town too strong for them returned to New England before the winter storms set in.

Sir William Phipps was now sent to England to obtain aid for the colonies, and to procure the restoration of the charter of Massachusetts. Aid was refused. A new charter was granted by William in which Massachusetts, Plymouth, Maine and Nova Scotia were united under the name of "Massachusetts Bay Colony," and was made a royal province, with Phipps as governor. He arrived with the new charter in 1692. The new charter was in some respects an improvement upon the old. Although it abridged the rights of the citizens it granted toleration to religious worship except to

Roman Catholics, and the right to vote was made almost universal.

The Puritans brought the belief in witches and witchcraft to America. They established laws for the punishment of witches; and before 1648 four persons had been executed for the alleged offense in the vicinity of Boston. In 1688, a wayward daughter of John Godwin, of Boston, about thirteen years of age, accused a servant girl of stealing some of the family linen. The mother of the servant girl, an Irish woman and a Roman Catholic, rebuked the accuser as a false witness. The young girl in revenge pretended to be bewitched by the Irishwoman. Some others of her family followed her example. The Rev. Cotton Mather, a credulous and egotistical clergyman, with other ministers from Boston and Salem, prosecuted the ignorant Irish woman as a witch, and she was hanged, "for the glory of God." In the spring and summer of 1692 an epidemic disease broke out in Danvers (then a part of Salem), and spread rapidly. The physicians could neither control nor cure it; and with the statements of Mather before them they readily ascribed the malady to the work of witches. Other old and ill-favored women now shared with the Irishwoman in the suspicion of being witches, and several of them were publicly accused and imprisoned. At length the "afflicted" and the accused became so numerous that no person was safe from suspicion and its consequences. Malice, revenge and rapacity impelled persons to accuse others who were innocent. When the magnates in church and state saw themselves in danger they cautiously expressed their doubts as to the justice of the proceedings against accused persons. A citizen of Andover, who was accused, wiser and more bold than governor or clergy, immediately caused the arrest of his accuser on a charge of defamation of character, and laid his damages at five thousand dollars. The spell was instantly broken, and witchcraft was no more heard of in Andover, and so it died out through the province.

During the time this delusion prevailed twenty persons had been executed, over fifty had been tortured, and over two hundred had been named as worthy of arrest. This strange episode in the history of Massachusetts astonished the civilized world and made an unfavorable impression on the surrounding Indians, who despised a people that cherished a religion which sanctioned such cruelties toward their countrymen. The Jesuit missionaries contrasted their own mild and beneficent system of religion with that of the Puritans. It had a serious effect upon the future destiny of New England, for the Indians on the frontiers were henceforth strongly wedded to the fortunes of the French.

Phipps tried to make an alliance with some of the Indian tribes on the frontier with whom he had made a treaty. They were willing to abide by the terms of the treaty, but, more attached to the French than ever, they refused an alliance with a people who believed in such a religion, and refused to associate with a people who cherished it. Phipps returned to England and left his deputy, Stoughton, as chief magistrate.

During Stoughton's administration, which lasted about three years, the French and Indians spread terror and desolation over the frontier. Nova Scotia submitted to the rule of France, and the summer of 1696 Fort William Henry, at Pemaquid, was attacked and captured. The French and Indians penetrated New England as far as Haverhill, within thirty miles of Boston, which was attacked by the Indians in March, 1697, when forty persons were killed or taken prisoners. Among those captured was the wife of Thomas Dustin, who was an invalid, and her nurse, whose name was Mary Neff. They were compelled to walk several days in the snow and slush to the village of the Indians, where they met an English lad, whose name was Samuel Leonardson, and who had been a captive for more than a year. The Indians did not believe that the women would have courage enough to attempt

to escape. So they did not keep watch, and they believed the lad faithful to them. Mrs. Dustin ascertained through the lad how to kill a man instantly, and how to take off his scalp. Before daylight the next morning, while the Indians were in deep sleep, Mrs. Dustin awakened the nurse and the lad, and with their assistance killed ten of the twelve sleepers. After scuttling all the boats but one, they started down the river. They had not proceeded far when Mrs. Dustin, reflecting that her friends might demand ocular proof of the truth of her story, went back with her companions, scalped the Indians and carried them away in a bag.

They journeyed down the Merrimac, and succeeded in reaching the settlements in safety, where they were received as persons risen from the dead. In 1874, a monument was erected on Dustin's Island, the place where the Indian wigwam stood, to commemorate this heroic deed.

During the summer of 1697, other places suffered dreadfully, and continued until the treaty of peace between France and England, in the same year, stayed the flow of blood.

In 1702, England and France again became involved in war, and as before, was carried to the colonies of the two governments in America. In England it is known as Queen Anne's war, William having died.

The Earl of Bellamont was now the governor of New England, and on his arrival in Boston, in 1699, he found public affairs in pleasant shape. The prosperity and peace of the colonists was rudely broken, however, on the breaking out of the war between England and France. The Indians who had professed friendship for the English suddenly in the summer of 1703 fell with remorseless fury on the frontier settlements, and swept them out of existence. The French Jesuits were blamed for the treachery of the Indians, and incurred the intense hatred of the English colonists. By acts of legislation they had been driven from all the New England colonies.

During the winter of 1703-04, the people along the New England frontier lived in perpetual dread of the foe. In March the village of Deerfield, on the Connecticut River in Massachusetts, was laid in ashes and its inhabitants either killed or made captives. Remote settlements were abandoned. The farmers gathered in fortified villages and labored in the fields in groups and well armed. There was no civilized warfare in the methods of the French and Indians, and their cruelties inspired good men everywhere with horror. At length in 1707, Massachusetts, New Hampshire and Rhode Island, resolved to carry the war into the French domain on the east. An expedition was sent against Port Royal, but it was a failure. In 1710 another expedition was fitted out at the joint expense of New York, New Jersey and the New England colonies, and a fleet from England, under command of Colonel Nicholson. They sailed for Port Royal, which surrendered on the 13th of October, and the name was changed to Annapolis, in honor of Queen Anne. Acadie was annexed to the realm of Great Britain, under the title of Nova Scotia.

Nicholson carried the news to England, and urged the conquest of Canada. An expedition for that conquest was planned, and fifteen war ships, forty transports and six stores ships were placed under command of Admiral Sir Hovenden Walker, with marines and veteran soldiers, which sailed for Boston and arrived in June, 1711. New England promptly raised a provincial force, and the ships sailed for Quebec on the 10th of August bearing about seven thousand troops. At the same time other colonies raised an army, under command of Nicholson, for the capture of Montreal. The French received news of these movements and prepared themselves for the invasion.

Quebec was never reached. The fleet was overtaken by a storm at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, eight of the vessels driven ashore, and almost a thousand perished in the sea. The ex-

pedition was abandoned, and the disheartened admiral returned to England. Nicholson hearing of the calamity and the result, unwillingly retraced his steps to Albany, and left Montreal unmolested.

In the spring of 1713 the war was ended by a treaty of peace, and England received large accessions of territory from France. Massachusetts and New Hampshire now made solemn treaties of amity and peace with the eastern Indians on the 24th of July. A long peace ensued, and for thirty years the colonists enjoyed comparative repose. It was broken only by discontented Indians in the East—the powerful Abenakes. They disputed the claim of Massachusetts to their territory, which the French had surrendered. After laying the town of Brunswick in ashes, the Indians were conquered and subdued by the exasperated English. In one of these forays Father Rale, a Jesuit missionary, was killed. He was the last of that society in New England, and with him perished French influence in the East.

From that time until late in the spring of 1744 the history of Massachusetts is chiefly a record of warm political disputes between the governors and the representatives of the people. When news reached the colonists that France had declared war against England they prepared for the conflict, which is known as "King George's War." Before war had been declared some French soldiers surprised, captured and carried to Louisburg a small English garrison at Canseau. Then some Indians attacked the fort at Annapolis, but were repulsed. The men taken from Canseau had been paroled and sent to Boston, where they gave a minute account of the fortress at Louisburg. It had been built by the French at a cost of five and a half million of dollars, and because of its strength it was known as "The Gibraltar of America."

The English colonists now resolved to attempt the capture of this fortress.

All the colonies joined in the movement, either with men or supplies, and they had reason to expect the help of a British fleet, then in the West Indies, under Admiral Sir Peter Warren. In April, 1745, New England troops sailed from Boston for Canseau, under command of William Pepperill, of Maine. In about a month they were joined by the fleet under Warren and more troops from Connecticut.

Finally, a combined attack of the fleet and army was made on Louisburg, and on the 17th of June, the city, fort, garrison and batteries surrendered to the English, together with the Island of Cape Breton. The value of the stores and prizes captured was over five millions of dollars.

The French sent a powerful fleet to retake Louisburg, under command of Duke d'Anville. His vessels were wrecked by violent storms, and disease wasted hundreds of his men, and the enterprise was abandoned without striking a blow.

Peace was declared at Aix-la-Chapelle, in October, 1748, when it was agreed that all property and territory should be restored as it was before the commencement of hostilities. So Louisburg passed into the hands of the French by peaceful means.

The most intense hatred was created by religious and national causes between the English and French colonists, and the horrid acts of the Indians made the people on the frontier regard them as almost as obnoxious as ravenous beasts of prey.

At about the middle of the eighteenth century they came to blows, and then began the fierce struggle of the English and French for supremacy on this continent, known in history as "The French and Indian War."

MARYLAND.

In the year 1639 a representative form of government was established in Maryland. The freemen chose as many representatives as they pleased. So did the proprietor, Lord Baltimore.

These, with a governor appointed by the proprietor, and a secretary, composed the government of the colony.

The Indians were friendly, and everything social and political promised for Maryland a long career of peace and prosperity.

William Clayborne had received from the governor of Virginia in 1627 authority to explore the headwaters of the Chesapeake Bay north of the 34th degree north latitude. Four years later King Charles gave him the privilege of making discoveries in the same region and trafficking with the natives. He established a trading post on Kent Island, in Chesapeake Bay.

Clayborne insisted upon the exemption of Kent Island from the jurisdiction of the Maryland proprietor, and the Virginia Assembly secretly supported the claim; and when Calvert insisted that Clayborne should either leave the island or take oath of allegiance to the governor he would do neither, but fitted out an armed vessel to protect his domain and cruise against the colonists. His vessel was captured by a Maryland force, and Clayborne, who was not in the expedition, prudently fled to Virginia, and there effectually excited the hostility of the Indians against Calvert's colony, telling the savages they were Spaniards. When Calvert demanded him from the governor of Virginia he fled to England. The Maryland legislature in 1638 deprived him of all his civil rights and property in their jurisdiction. He laid the case before the King, and it was decided against him.

The King of the Paxutents now showed unfriendly actions toward the colonists, and it alarmed and disquieted them. But the more powerful King of the Piscataways, who had been very sick, and had been cured by Father White, a Roman Catholic priest, was very grateful. He asked to be baptized. On a summer day in 1640 the King, his queen, and their little child, with several of their council were baptized in the presence of the governor and other distinguished citizens. His

daughter, an intelligent young woman, followed her father's example, and was sent to school at St. Mary's. The old King of the Piscataways died, and his daughter was made queen. She could not protect the Christians against hostile pagans within their borders and beyond, with whom Clayborne and his emissaries had tampered.

In 1642, the Indians, alarmed at the increasing number of Englishmen in their country, and made suspicious by Clayborne, made war on the colonists. It lasted two or three years, but did not cause much damage. It had just ended when Clayborne, assisted by Captain Richard Ingle, stirred up the people to rebellion. Civil war was then raging in England, and Calvert could expect no help from the monarch. The rebels, with the help of disaffected Indians, instantly triumphed, and the governor and his council were compelled to fly to Virginia. The rebellion was crushed in the summer of 1646, when the governor returned to his chair of state. Many of the records of the province had been destroyed during the civil war, and those carried away by Captain Ingle were lost. Clemency was extended to all the rebels, excepting Ingle, and peace was speedily restored.

William Stone, of Virginia, a Protestant, was appointed governor, and through his influence numbers of Puritans settled in the colony, coming from Virginia. The Maryland Assembly, composed of Puritans, Church of England men, and a few Roman Catholics, met in 1649, and passed the "Toleration Act" under the pressure of strong Puritan influence. This act tolerated all Christians, but Jews and Unitarians were excluded. The persecuted in other colonies now flocked to Maryland to enjoy this freedom of conscience. This act was the pride and glory of Maryland's early legislation, yet it was not the first act of the kind passed in America. In May, 1647, two years before, the General Assembly of Rhode Island adopted a code of laws which closed with the declaration that "all men may walk as their consciences persuaded them, without molestation—

everyone in the name of his God." It was absolute toleration.

The republican Parliament in England now appointed a commission, with Clayborne as a member, to govern Maryland. Three commissioners deposed Stone, and abolished the authority of the proprietor of the province. A few months after they reinstated Stone, put Kent and Polmer's Islands into the possession of Clayborne, and so enabled the vigorous "outlaw" to trample over his enemy, Lord Baltimore. In 1653, Cromwell restored full power to Lord Baltimore as proprietor. Stone displaced all officers appointed by the commissioners. They in turn, incensed at his conduct, deposed him and vested the government of the province in a board of commissioners.

When the General Assembly convened in the fall of 1654 the Protestants were still in the majority. They disfranchised members of the Roman Catholic Church and of the Church of England. They also flogged and imprisoned Quakers. Lord Baltimore secured an order from Cromwell, sent to the commissioners, "not to busy themselves about religion but to settle the civil government."

So encouraged, Lord Baltimore ordered Stone to raise an army for the restoration of the proprietor. Stone acted vigorously, he raised a force, chiefly of Roman Catholics. Finally, a battle was fought in April, 1655, near the site of Annapolis, in which Stone was made prisoner. The governor and others were tried for treason. His life was saved, but four of his colleagues were hanged.

Josiah Fendall, a former insurgent, was appointed governor by Baltimore. For two years there was bitter strife between the people and the agents of the proprietor. The latter finally made important concessions, and Fendall was permitted to act as governor. By prudent conduct he secured the confidence of the people. When Cromwell died the people did not wait upon England, but boldly asserting their authority dissolved the proprietary portion of the Assembly in the spring of 1660, and

assumed the whole legislative power of the state. Fendall was given a commission as governor. Three months after monarchy being restored in England, Lord Baltimore was restored to his proprietary rights. Baltimore wisely pardoned all political offenders, and for thirty years Maryland enjoyed peace and repose. The province prospered and the people were happy.

Emigrants came from every part of Europe to enjoy the tolerant rule there. The population of the province consisted of about ten thousand white people living together in harmony and religious tolerance. Lord Baltimore died in 1675, after a rule in Maryland, with several interruptions, for forty-three years. He had never trodden the soil of his colony, but a grateful people cherished his memory by naming the chief city of the state "Baltimore."

In 1678, the General Assembly established the right of suffrage on a broad basis. When Charles Calvert, the son of Lord Baltimore, returned to the province in 1681 he annulled this act, and the King issued an order that all offices of government should be filled by Protestants alone. In 1684, Charles Calvert, now Lord Baltimore, again went to England, leaving the government in the charge of several deputies. While he was in England William and Mary ascended the throne. The Protestants in the colony believing there was a plot between the Roman Catholics and the Indians formed an armed association, led by a man named Coode. They took possession of Maryland's capital and organized a provincial government in May, 1689. Lord Baltimore was deposed by the sovereigns; and Coode was ordered to administer the government in the name of the King. The people became disgusted with Coode's rule, and he was displaced in 1692, and Sir Lionel Copley appointed governor by the King. During his administration the capital was changed from St. Mary's to the present site at Annapolis in 1694. Copley made the Church of England the state church, and supported it by

a tax on the whole people. The proprietary rights of the Baltimore family were not restored until 1715, the Lord Baltimore at that time being a Protestant. This man was a contemporary of William Penn, and was equally conspicuous for benevolence. They are regarded as the best of the proprietors who owned chartered domains in America.

Charles, Lord Baltimore, died in 1751, after ruling the province in person and by deputies thirty-six years. During that period the growth of the province in wealth and population was remarkable. The inhabitants then numbered about one hundred and thirty-five thousand souls, of whom about forty thousand were slaves.

When the French and Indian war broke out in 1755 Maryland became involved, at first simply in an attitude of self-defense, and a generous assistant of the other colonies. When the Indians commenced to plunder her own frontiers the General Assembly, aroused to the imminent danger voted men and money for a vigorous prosecution of the war; and the command of all the forces engaged against the French on the Ohio was given, by a royal commission, to Governor Sharpe of Maryland. The people of that province were forced by circumstances to consent to a union which was finally cemented by the blood of the Revolution.

CONNECTICUT, RHODE ISLAND AND NEW JERSEY.

The Connecticut colonists managed their private and public affairs prudently and were prosperous, and they worked in harmony until they were united into one commonwealth in 1665. Stuyvesant, when he visited Hartford, in 1650, had settled all their troubles with the Dutch. The Indian tribes had given them some disquietude and made them approve and join the New England Confederacy in 1643. The following year the little independent colony at Saybrook, at the mouth of the Connecticut River, was annexed.

At the breaking out of the war between England and Holland in 1653 alarming rumors had spread through New England that the Dutch and the Indians intended destroying the English colonies. Connecticut, being on the frontier, asked the aid of Massachusetts in making war on the Dutch. When Massachusetts refused Connecticut asked aid of Cromwell, who sent four ships-of-war, but before their arrival a treaty of peace between England and Holland ended the war.

On the restoration of monarchy in England in 1660 the General Assembly of Connecticut resolved to make a formal acknowledgment of their allegiance to the crown and ask the King for a charter. Governor John Winthrop, a son of Winthrop, of Massachusetts, took a petition, signed in May, 1651, to England. He obtained an interview with the King, and after some delay a charter was issued on the 1st of May, 1652. It confirmed the popular constitution of the colony, and contained more liberal provisions than any yet issued by royal hands. It defined the boundary so as to include the New Haven colony and a part of Rhode Island on the East, and westward to the Pacific Ocean. The New Haven colony reluctantly gave its consent to the union in 1665, and the boundary between Connecticut and Rhode Island remained a subject for dispute for more than sixty years. That old charter, engrossed on parchment, is among the archives in the Connecticut State Department. During King Philip's war the colonists of Connecticut did not suffer much from hostile Indians excepting some remote settlements high up the Connecticut River.

Governor Andros, of New York, claimed jurisdiction as far east as the Connecticut River. He went with a small naval expedition in 1675 to the mouth of that stream to assert his authority. Captain Bull, commander of the fort at Saybrook, compelled him to return to New York. For a dozen years after this expedition nothing occurred to disturb the repose of the colony.

King James the Second was determined to have absolute rule over all New England. So Andros, on his arrival in New York, demanded a surrender of all the colonial charters into his hands. The authorities of all complied excepting Connecticut. Andros, to subdue their stubbornness, proceeded with sixty armed men to Hartford, and demanded the surrender of the charter in person. On his arrival there on the 31st of October (old style), 1687, he found the General Assembly in session. The members received him with the courtesy due his rank. Before that body, with armed men at his back he demanded a formal surrender of that precious document into his own hands.

It was now near sunset. A subject of some importance was under debate, and the discussion was purposely continued until some time after the candles were lighted. Then the charter contained in a long mahogany box was brought in and laid upon the table. A preconcerted plan to save it from the grasp of the usurper was now instantly executed. As Andros put forth his hand to take the charter the candles were all snuffed out and the document was snatched by Captain Wadsworth, whose train-bands were near to protect the Assembly from any violence which the royal soldiers might offer. Wadsworth bore away the charter, the crowd opening as he passed out, and closing behind him, and hid it in the hollow of a venerable oak tree on the outskirts of the village. When the candles were re-lighted the members were seated in perfect order, but the charter could not be found. The tree in which the document was hidden was ever afterward known as the "Charter Oak." It was destroyed by a storm in August, 1856.

Andros, however, declared the charter forfeited and annulled, and from that time until he was expelled in 1689 from the country he governed Connecticut as an autocrat. Then the charter was brought out from its place of concealment in May, 1689; a popular Assembly was convened; Robert

Treat was chosen governor, and Connecticut again assumed the position of an independent colony.

From the time that Benjamin Fletcher, in 1693, was foiled in his attempts to exercise control over the militia of Connecticut until three-fourths of a century later, the history of Connecticut is intimately woven with that of the other colonies of America settled by the English.

The inhabitants of Connecticut, by prudent habits and good government, steadily increased in numbers and wealth. They went hand in hand with the other colonies in measures for the promotion of the welfare of all; and when in the fullness of time the provinces were ripe for union, rebellion and independence the people of Connecticut were foremost in their eagerness to assert their rights as a free people.

Rhode Island was favored by Parliament with a charter, in 1644. The General Assembly, in a code of laws adopted in 1647, declared "all men might walk as their conscience permitted them—everyone in the name of his God." Throughout the whole community, so independent in thought and action, appeared a healthier religious sentiment than in Massachusetts, where the people were straight-laced by creeds and dogmas, and were constantly tempted to be hypocrites. There was a high-toned morality, and every man was safe in his person, name and estate.

In 1651, the Executive Council of State, in England, granted to William Coddington a commission for governing the islands within the limits of Rhode Island charter. The people were alarmed, Roger Williams and John Clarke hastened to England, and with the assistance of Sir Henry Vane, the "sheet-anchor of Rhode Island," the commission was recalled and the charter given by Parliament was confirmed. That was in October, 1652. This act put an end to the persevering efforts of Massachusetts to absorb the little commonwealth.

Williams, on his return in the fall of

1654, was chosen president of the colony, and the charter given by Parliament was confirmed by Cromwell, the following year.

On the restoration of the monarchy in 1660, the inhabitants of Rhode Island sent an address to Charles, in which they declared their loyalty and begged his protection. This was followed by a petition for a new charter. In July, 1663, the King issued a patent highly democratic in its general features, and similar in every respect to the one granted to Connecticut. Benedict Arnold was chosen the first governor, and it continued to be the supreme law of the land until 1842, or one hundred and eighty years.

When Andros demanded the surrender of the colonial charters, in 1687, Rhode Island instantly yielded. Andros proceeded to Rhode Island, where he found no opposition and where he was graciously received. He formally dissolved the Assembly, and assumed the functions of governor, admitting five of the inhabitants into his legislative council. But he did not take away the parchment on which the charter was written.

When Andros was deposed, in the spring of 1689, the people assembled at Newport, resumed popular government under the old charter, and began a new and independent political career. From that time until the enforced union of the colonies for mutual defense at the breaking out of the French and Indian War, the inhabitants of Rhode Island always bore their fair share in defensive efforts, especially when the hostile savages hung along the frontiers of New England and New York.

From the beginning of King William's War, soon after the expulsion of Andros, the history of Rhode Island is identified with that of all New England.

We will now consider the history of New Jersey as a *colony*. Agents were sent by the authorities to New England to invite settlers, and a company from New Haven were soon seated on the banks of the Passaic. Others followed, and the first legislative as-

sembly that met at Elizabethtown, in 1668, was largely made up of New England Puritans. The soil was fertile, the climate salubrious, and the Indians friendly, so the colony rapidly increased in population and prosperity. In 1670, specified quit-rents of a half-penny for each acre of land was demanded. The people murmured, and refused to pay, not on account of the amount, but because it was an unjust tax levied without their consent.

These disputes continued for two years, and the province was in confusion. There was actual rebellion; and in May, 1672, the disaffected colonists sent deputies to a popular Assembly, which compelled Philip Carteret, the proprietary ruler, to vacate his chair and leave the province. While the proprietors were making preparations to recover the province by force of arms, New Jersey and all the rest of the territory claimed by the Duke of York, fell into the hands of the Dutch, with whom the English were then at war. That was in August, 1673.

When this domain was returned to the English, fifteen months afterward, the Duke received a new charter from the King and appointed Andros governor of the whole domain. Carteret complained, and his authority was partly restored; but sufficient was reserved to give Andros a pretext for asserting his authority and annoying the proprietors and the people.

Lord Berkeley, becoming disgusted, sold his interest in the province to John Fenwick and Edward Byllinge, English Friends or Quakers, for the sum of five thousand dollars. This tract of land was in the western part of the province. Fenwick and a company of emigrants, mostly Friends, settled on a spot not far from the Delaware River, which was named Salem, on account of the peaceful aspect of the country, and of the surrounding Indians.

Byllinge's interest in the province was sold to William Penn and others. In July, 1676, the province was divided. Carteret taking the eastern part and the associated purchasers taking the

western part. From that time until they were united and became a royal province, in 1702, these divisions were known as *East and West Jersey*.

The proprietors of West Jersey gave the settlers, who were mostly Friends, a very liberal constitution of government. In 1677, more than four hundred Friends came from England and settled below the Raritan River. Andros at this time required the colonies to acknowledge his authority as representative of the Duke of York. They refused, and the matter was referred to the eminent crown-lawyer, Sir William Jones, for adjudication. Sir William decided against the claim of the Duke, who submitted to the decision, released both provinces from allegiance to him, and the Jerseys became independent of foreign control. The first popular Assembly in West Jersey met at Salem, in November, 1681, and adopted a code of laws for the government of the people. One of these laws provided that in all criminal cases, excepting treason, murder, and theft, the aggrieved part should have power to pardon the offender.

Carteret died in 1679, and in 1682 his Jersey estate was purchased by William Penn and others, among them the Earl of Perth, the friend of Robert Barclay, whom the proprietors appointed governor for life. This purchase was made in the interest of a land speculation, and not in the interest of religion or liberty.

Barclay governed the province by deputies until his death, in 1690, when only forty-two years of age. Immigrants flocked into East Jersey from England and Scotland and from Long Island, to find repose and peace, for they were mostly members of the society of Friends. But they were compelled to submit to the tyranny of Andros, when he was made viceroy by James the Second. When that detested viceroy was driven from the country, in 1689, the Jerseys were left without a regular civil government and so they remained several years.

The proprietors wearied with their contentions with the people and the

government in England, and their losses in unprofitable speculation, surrendered their rights in the Jerseys to the crown, in 1702. Sir Edward Hyde, governor of New York, was appointed governor, with absolute legislative, executive and judicial power. Liberty of conscience was granted, except to Roman Catholics. Printing was prohibited in the province, and the traffic in negro slaves was especially encouraged.

The province of New Jersey remained a dependency of New York, with a distinct legislative assembly of its own, until the year 1738, when, through the efforts of Lewis Morris, its chief justice, it was made an independent colony, and so continued until the war for independence. Mr. Morris was commissioned its first governor, after the province had gained its freedom from New York. He was the son of an officer in Cromwell's army who, at about the year 1672, settled on a farm of three thousand acres on the Harlem River, New York, which was named Morrisania.

The last of the royal governors of New Jersey was William Franklin, son of Dr. Benjamin Franklin, who was appointed, in 1763, and closed his official career in the summer of 1776, when he was deposed by the Continental Congress, and sent under guard to Connecticut, where he was released on parole and sailed for England. He died there in 1813.

PENNSYLVANIA.

William Penn founded the city of Philadelphia, at the close of 1682, and with the help of his surveyor, Thomas Holme, laid out a town and caused the boundaries of the streets to be marked on the trunks of the chestnut, walnut, locust, spruce, pine and other forest trees that covered the land. Several streets of that city yet bear the names of those trees, then given to them. The new town had a rapid growth. Within a year after the surveyor had finished his task, almost a hundred houses had been erected there, and the Indians came daily with the spoils of

the forest as presents for "Father Penn," as they delighted to call the proprietor.

The second Assembly of the province, honored the new city by gathering there in the March following. At this meeting, Penn offered the representatives of the people a new charter. It was so liberal in all its provisions that when the question, "Shall we accept the new constitution or to adhere to the old one?" came up in that body, there was a solid vote in favor of the new one.

A representative republican government, with free religious toleration and having justice for its foundation; constituted the main grants in the charter, and the proprietor, unlike those of other provinces, surrendered to the people his chartered rights in the appointment of officers. From the beginning, the happiness and prosperity of his people appeared to be uppermost in the heart and mind of William Penn. It was this happy relation between the proprietor and the people, and security against Indian raids, that made Pennsylvania far outstrip her sister colonies in rapidity of settlement and permanent prosperity.

A small house was erected on the site of Philadelphia, late in 1682, for the use of Penn. It occupied a place in Letitia Court, between Front and Second Streets, and survived until late in the last century. There were fashioned those excellent laws, with Penn's assistance, which gave Pennsylvania a high character. At about the same time Pennsylvania was divided into three counties—Bucks, Chester and Philadelphia; and the annexed territory was also divided into three counties—New Castle, Kent and Sussex—known for a long time afterward as the "Three lower counties on the Delaware."

When Penn returned to England in the summer of 1684. He left the government of the province, during his absence, in the care of five members of the council and Thomas Lloyd as president. His mission in America had been a triumphant success. His wise and

beneficent conduct had spread a report all over Europe that William Penn had opened, in a beautiful land beyond the ocean, an asylum to the good and oppressed of every nation and creed. These and others came from Scandinavia, the borders of the Rhine, and from England, Wales and Scotland and Ireland, to plant quiet homes in the dominion of the "Quaker King." His "City of Brotherly Love" had, in the course of two years, grown more rapidly than had the city of New York in almost half a century. At the close of 1685, it contained six hundred houses; schools were established, and William Bradford, who had landed where Philadelphia was afterward laid out, had set up a printing press there. His "Almanack for the Year of the Christian's Account, 1687," was printed there in March of that year.

At the death of Charles, when James the Second ascended the throne of England, there was great political and religious excitement in England. Penn and the new King had long been personal friends; and through Penn's influence, twelve hundred persecuted Friends had been released from prison, in 1686. King James was known to be under the influence of the Jesuits, and Penn was suspected of being one of them; and after James had been driven from the throne, he was arrested three times, on false charges of treason, and as often acquitted. The last time was in 1690. In the meanwhile, great religious and political commotions disturbed Pennsylvania, and in April, 1891, the Three Lower Counties on the Delaware, withdrew from the union, offended at the action of the council at Philadelphia. Penn yielded to the secessionists so far as to appoint a separate deputy-governor over them.

William and Mary were now on the throne of England. From accusations, which came from Pennsylvania, made against Penn, he was deprived of his rights as governor of his province in 1692. Governor Fletcher, of New York, was placed in control and appeared at the head of the council in Philadelphia, on the 15th of May, 1693,

with William Markham, Penn's deputy, as lieutenant governor. He reunited the Delaware counties to the parent province.

Penn was called before the Privy Council in England, to answer the accusations. He was proven innocent and powerful friends interceded with King William for the restoration of his rights. In the summer of 1694, a few months afterward, all his rights were restored. He lingered in England in comparative poverty, his fortune having been wasted, until 1699, when, with his daughter and his second wife, Hannah Callowhill, he sailed for Philadelphia. The province under William Markham, his old deputy, had asserted their right of self government, and made laws for themselves while he was in England. The province was prosperous, but clamorous for political privileges guaranteed them by law. Penn gave them a new constitution, in November, 1701, more liberal than the former ones, and perfectly satisfactory to all. The people of the "Three Lower Counties" had been forced into union with Pennsylvania, so he made provisions for their permanent separation in legislation, in 1702; and the first independent legislature in Delaware was assembled at New Castle, in 1703. Although Pennsylvania and Delaware ever afterward continued to have separate legislatures, they were under the same governor until the revolution in 1776.

Penn had come to Philadelphia to live and die there; and had built a fine brick house to reside in, which stood on the corner of Second Street and Norris Alley, but the news from England that measures were pending before the Privy Council for bringing all the proprietary governments under the crown, determined him to return to his native country to defend his rights. He did so late in 1701, and succeeded. He never returned to America. Business troubles connected with the province harassed and wearied him, and he was about to sell his rights in the province in 1712, for sixty thousand dollars, when he was prostrated by paralysis.

He survived six years when he died, leaving his estates in America to his three sons. His family governed Pennsylvania, as proprietors, until the revolution made it a free state in 1776. Meanwhile, the province had sustained its share of mutual defense with its sister colonies, during the troubles with the French and Indians.

NORTH AND SOUTH CAROLINA.

The new scheme of government, formed by Locke and Cooper, was signed in March, 1670, and Monk, Duke of Albemarle, was created viceroy for the new empire. The simple settlers had something to say, when the governor of Northern or Albemarle County colony attempted to introduce the new government. When the question was forced upon them, "Will you accept it?" They said, "No." They resolved to adhere to the form of government of their own far better adapted to their needs than the one sent from England.

The attempts to enforce obedience to the new form of government, oppressive taxation, and the restrictive English navigation laws, spread wide discontent. This was encouraged by refugees from Virginia, who had been implicated in "Bacon's Rebellion," and who had sought safety among the people below the Roanoke. These refugees scattered the seeds of popular freedom, and successful oppression was made difficult, if not impossible.

The whole state of North Carolina did not, at that time, contain four thousand inhabitants. They carried on a small trade with New England, in tobacco, maize and cattle, and in return received those articles of foreign production, which otherwise they could not procure. English cupidity envied them their privileges, and in 1672, the navigation laws were put in force. A tax of a penny on every pound of tobacco sent to New England was demanded. The colonists resisted and tax-gatherers were sent to collect the levy. There were frequent collisions with the people, and on one occasion, a tax-gatherer

tried to drive away a steer, seized for the payment of the tax on a shipment of tobacco to New England by a planter. The wife of the sturdy yeoman beat him off with a mop stick, and saved the animal.

Finally, the exasperated people, led by John Culpepper, a refugee from the Southern or Carteret County colony, seized the governor and the public funds; imprisoned him and six of his councillors; called a new representative Assembly, and appointed a chief magistrate and judges. That was in December, 1677. The colonists conducted the affairs of their government for two years without any foreign control. Meanwhile, Culpepper, whom the royalists denounced as one who merited hanging, conscious of his integrity, went boldly to England to plead the cause of the colonists. While in England he was arrested and tried for treason, for which he was acquitted. Returning to North Carolina, he was appointed surveyor-general of the province; and in 1680 he was employed in laying out the city of Charleston, in South Carolina.

Seth Sothel had purchased a share in the soil of the provinces and was sent to administer the government there, as governor. He reached North Carolina in 1683, after having been captured by the Algerian pirates. His advent disturbed tranquility, for he was avaricious, extortionate and cruel, and plundered both the proprietors and the people. After ruling about six weeks, the people rose in rebellion, seized and imprisoned him. He was tried before the colonial Assembly and sentenced to one year's banishment and perpetual disqualification for the office of governor. Sothel then withdrew to the Southern colony.

Philip Ludwell, an energetic and honest man, succeeded Sothel. He soon restored order and good feeling in the colony. He was succeeded by other honorable men, among them the good John Archdale, a member of the society of Friends, who was made governor of the two colonies. The people of North Carolina, over whom he ruled, were

almost as free in their opinions and actions as the air they breathed. They were widely scattered, with not a city or town, and scarcely a hamlet in their sylvanian domain. There were no roads but bridle paths from house to house, and these were indicated by notches cut in trees. There was no settled minister of the Gospel among them until 1703. The first church was erected in North Carolina in 1705. No building for a court house was constructed until 1722; and it was not until 1754—about a hundred years after the first permanent settlement was made in the region of the Chowan—that a printing press was set up in the province.

The first legislative assembly of South Carolina convened in the spring of 1672, at the place on the Ashley River where the colony was first seated. The Southern or Carteret colony had been steadily advancing in population and wealth, since its first settlement. They had not conformed to the plan of government drawn up by Locke and Cooper.

In the Assembly, there were many parties, all bigoted and resolute. Their debates became so warm at times, that the members almost came to blows, and it was a relief to the people when the Assembly adjourned. The danger from hostile Indian foes finally healed the dissensions among the settlers. Moved by the instinct of self-preservation, they joined in a successful warfare upon the Indians, who had begun to plunder the plantations, and to menace the lives of the colonists. The Indians were subdued in 1680. Old Town was abandoned, and on Oyster Point, Charleston, the future capital of the colony was founded. It was chiefly settled by the English, the Dutch and others, spreading over the country along the Edisto and Santee Rivers. Immigrants from Europe rapidly swelled the population of Charleston and its vicinity, and aspirations for political independence were manifested there at that early day.

A second popular Assembly met at Charleston in 1682. Harmony to a

great extent prevailed, wise laws were framed, and immigrants flowed in with a continuous stream. Families from Ireland, Scotland and Holland; and when the edict of Nantes was revoked, large numbers of French-Huguenots sought an asylum in the Carolinas. The hatred of the English for the French prevented these French refugees from obtaining citizenship in the colonies for full ten years.

A little colony that had been settled by the Scotch, in 1682, at Port Royal, led by Lord Cardross, was destroyed by the Spaniards, in 1686.

The Huguenots were being persecuted with the utmost rigor in France. They were a sturdy and industrious people, and fully five hundred thousand of them left France. Those that settled in America were blessings to every community in which they made homes. The warmer climate of the Carolinas was more congenial to these children of sunny France, and great numbers settled there. They gave some of their best blood to the Carolinas, and their descendants have borne a conspicuous part in the building up of those states, and of our free Republic.

In 1686, John Colleton, one of the owners, was appointed governor of South Carolina. He ruled four years and his administration was a very turbulent one. He was in continual collision with the people and drove them into open rebellion. They seized the public records; imprisoned the secretary of the province; called a new Assembly, and defied the power of the governor. He declared the province under martial law, and called out the militia. They did not respond to his call, and he was impeached and banished from the colony by the Assembly, in 1690.

Seth Sothel, who had been banished from North Carolina, arrived in the colony and espoused the cause of the people. He was made governor, and for two years he plundered the colony and the people. He was removed in 1692, and died two years afterward. It was during the administration of

Sothel that the Huguenots in South Carolina were granted the liberty of citizenship. This act of enfranchisement was repealed in 1697.

Colonel Philip Ludwell, of Virginia, and then governor of North Carolina, was appointed successor of Sothel. He had a brief and unhappy administration and gladly retired. The proprietors, after a trial of twenty years, were now satisfied that the government planned by Locke and Cooper, could never be imposed on the people, so it was abandoned. They sent John Archdale to govern both colonies. His administration was short, but highly beneficial. He healed dissensions; established equitable laws, religion had full toleration, and he made the Indians love and respect him. He introduced the growth of rice into the colony, and so the cultivation of that valuable cereal was introduced into our country.

From the close of Archdale's administration, the history of the two Carolinas should be considered separate and distinct, although they were politically disunited until 1729.

The Indians along the sea-board of North Carolina had disappeared before the advance of the white man, at the end of the seventeenth century. The broad domain from the sea to the Yadkin and the Catawba then lay almost uninhabited.

In 1704, Deputy-Governor Daniells was sent to the province to establish the dominion of the Church of England. As the colonists were nearly all dissenters, he was opposed in his scheme. The Friends led in the opposition. For a while there were two governors and two Assemblies. The dissensions were soon quieted, but they did not become Churchmen. Several years afterward, there was only one clergyman in the provinces, for no congregations could be gathered.

In 1707, some Huguenots came from Virginia, and settled on the banks of the Trent, a tributary of the Neuse. At about the same time a hundred German families came from the devastated Palatinate on the Rhine, led by Count Graf-

fenreid, and settled at the headwaters of the Neuse and on the banks of the Roanoke. Emigrants from Switzerland, founded New Berne.

A fearful calamity fell upon the Germans soon after they were planted. The remnants of the native tribes, driven to the forests, were incited and led by the Tuscaroras, a fierce Algonquin tribe, and joined by the Corees, a tribe near the sea-board further south, to exterminate the whites and repossess themselves of their lands.

They fell upon the German settlements along the Loanoke, and on an October night, in 1711, they slew one hundred and thirty men, women and children, and laid their settlements in ashes. John Lawson, surveyor-general of the province, and Count Graffenreid were taken captives. Lawson was burned to death but the Count escaped.

There was the wildest excitement in North Carolina, and South Carolina was called upon for help. Colonel Barnwell hastened northward with some Carolinians and a body of friendly Indians, composed of Creeks, Catawbias, Cherokees and Yammassees. The Tuscaroras were driven to their fortified town, and there made a solemn treaty of peace with the white man. The South Carolinians, on their way homeward, aroused again the enmity of the Indians. The Tuscaroras again went on the war-path, but were defeated by Colonel Moore and some Indian allies. Those of the Tuscaroras that were not made captives, fled to the North and joined the Iroquois Confederacy. The Corees soon afterward made a treaty of peace, and North Carolina never afterward suffered from the hostility of Indians.

The first issue of paper money in North Carolina was to pay the cost of this war.

When England went to war against France and Spain, in 1702, James Moore, governor of South Carolina, proposed an expedition against the Spaniards at St. Augustine. The Assembly agreed with the governor and appropriated nearly ten thousand dollars for the enterprise. A fleet and

army were now sent against St. Augustine. Colonel Daniels, in command of the army and Governor Moore in command of the fleet. The expedition was unsuccessful and returned to Charleston. The cost of this to the colony was heavy, and the first issue of paper money by South Carolina was to pay this debt.

The following year, governor Moore made war against the hostile Appalachians, a Mobilian tribe, who occupied a region in Georgia between the Savannah and Atlantamha Rivers. He laid waste their country and made captives of eight hundred men, women and children, and the Indians of the whole region were made vassals or subjects of the English.

Trouble over religion now disturbed South Carolina. The majority of the Assembly were members of the Church of England. They deprived the dissenters from the rights of citizenship. The dissenters appealed to the crown, and in the fall of 1706, the Assembly, by order of Parliament, repealed the law of disfranchisement. But the Anglican Church maintained its supremacy in religious affairs until the war of the revolution.

The attack on St. Augustine, by the South Carolinians, had angered the Spaniards. An expedition consisting of five vessels-of-war, under command of the French admiral LeFeboure, and a large body of troops, was sent from Havana to attack Charleston, to conquer the province and annex it to the Spanish territory in Florida. The squadron arrived off Charleston in May, 1706, landed about eight hundred troops, and demanded the surrender of the city. It was met by the reply that the people would not surrender and were ready to meet any attack.

The South Carolinians now made a furious assault on the landing party, killed many, captured more, and drove the remnant back to their ships. At the same time the little provincial navy prepared to attack the invading squadron. The French admiral, amazed and alarmed by the display of valor, weighed anchor and fled to sea. A

French ship soon after this, uninformed of these events, sailed into the harbor with troops, and was captured. The Spaniards, in Florida, and the French, on the Mississippi, had been for some time secretly inciting the Indians to exterminate the English. A confederacy was formed among the Indians, from Cape Fear on the north to the St. Mary's on the south, and back to the rivers beyond the mountains in the west. This league was formed in forty days. The warriors of the league numbered six thousand. It comprised the Cherokees, Choctaws, Chicasaws, Catawbas and Congarees on the west, and the Creeks, Yammasees and Apalachians on the south. At the same time a thousand warriors broke forth from the forests of the Neuse region to avenge their misfortunes in the war two or three years before.

The savages had managed so secretly that not a whisper of warning had reached Charleston. The Yammasees, on the morning of April 13th, 1715, began an indiscriminate massacre of the white people along the sea-board. The news had now arrived of the outbreak to the settlers at Port Royal. These fled to Charleston with the news. Charleston now became the centre of a stream of terror stricken planters and their families. Governor Craven acted promptly. He took measures to prevent men from leaving the colony. He declared the province to be under martial law; took measures to secure all arms and ammunition to be found, and called upon the citizens to prepare to fight valiantly for their lives and property. With a motley army of whites, blacks and Indians, twelve hundred strong, he marched to meet the savages. After severe fighting, the governor drove the Yammasees across Georgia, and giving them no rest until they were under the guns of St. Augustine. The savages from the north were driven back to the forests and the Cherokees and their neighbors retired to their hunting grounds. The war with the Indians was settled in May, 1715.

The colonists of South Carolina were now tired and disgusted with proprie-

tary rule, their popular Assembly declared they would have nothing to do with the proprietors. Governor Johnson refused to rule in the name of the King. On the first of December, a convention of the people chose James Moore as governor. Soon after proprietary rule was dismissed from the soil of South Carolina. The charter of the proprietors was abrogated by the crown, and in 1720, South Carolina became a royal province, with Francis Nicholson as royal governor.

The proprietors of North Carolina, seeing the inevitable drift of public sentiment, made a virtue of necessity, and sold the domain to the King for eighty thousand dollars. It then became a royal province. The two Carolinas were then separated. George Burrington was appointed governor of North Carolina and Robert Johnson was made chief magistrate of South Carolina.

From that time up until the French and Indian war, the history of the two colonies is largely made up of records of disputes between the people and royal governors.

GEORGIA.

Georgia was the latest colony planted by the English in America. When Oglethorpe returned from England, early in 1736, he brought with him a company of Scotch Highlanders, who were skilled in military art, and many Germans who were to join their Moravian brethren, who had settled in Georgia two or three years before. He was also accompanied by John and Charles Wesley. John was then thirty-three years of age, and came as a missionary of the Gospel among the settlers and the surrounding pagans. Charles came as an assistant to his brother and as secretary to Oglethorpe. John Wesley had led to the founding of the Methodist denomination, and was fervent and eloquent in speech. He obtained a large congregation at first, but his austerity of maxims, and his rigid exercise of ecclesiastical authority, soon involved him in serious

disputes with the settlers, who were a peculiarly mixed people. At the end of two years he returned to England. His mission in Georgia was a failure.

George Whitefield, a sturdy young preacher, who had been swaying large multitudes in England, and a friend of the Wesleys, obtained permission to join them in Georgia. He was not quite twenty-four years of age when he arrived in Savannah. The Wesleys had departed when he arrived, but he entered upon his duties with fervor. More practical than Wesley, he became not only a blessing to Georgia, but to other American colonies, where he labored as an itinerant preacher. He founded an asylum for orphans in Savannah, and worked lovingly with the Moravians in Georgia, who made a most salutary impression on society there.

The Spaniards at St. Augustine were very jealous of the rapid growth of Georgia. Oglethorpe saw, on his return to the colony, that he was not prepared to resist an invasion by arms. He sent a messenger to St. Augustine to invite the commander to a friendly conference. In the meantime, he and a number of his Highlanders, went on an exploring expedition among the islands and along the coast of Georgia. On St. Simon's Island he founded Frederica and built a fort there. Sailing up Alatomaha Sound, he visited New Inverness (now Darien), where a few Scotch people had planted a settlement. He was warmly received by the settlers and marked out a small fortification there.

Oglethorpe, on his return to Savannah, which was in the warm spring weather, found that his messenger had not returned from St. Augustine. He now proceeded to sustain the claims of Great Britain to the country as far south as the St. John's River. He had marked out a fort called St. Andrew's on Cumberland Island, which would command the mouth of the St. Mary's River, the stream which finally became the southern boundary of Georgia. He planned a small military work on an island at the mouth of the St. John's

River called Fort St. George. He also founded Augusta, far up the Savannah River, as a defense against Indians from the west, who might be under the influence of French or Spanish traders.

The news of Oglethorpe's hostile preparations irritated the Spaniards at St. Augustine. They detained Oglethorpe's messengers as prisoners, and threatened war. The Indians, friendly to the English, now made assurances of alliance, and sent warriors to Oglethorpe's aid. The governor at St. Augustine, hearing of these alliances, released the messengers, and at a meeting of the parties concerned, an honorable treaty was made. The Home government in Spain did not approve of this, and notified Oglethorpe that a commission from Cuba would meet him at Frederica. The commissioner appeared with his secretary, after leaving three regiments of Spanish infantry at St. Augustine, and peremptorily ordered the evacuation of all Georgia by the British and of all of South Carolina below the parallel of Port Royal, claiming all that region as a part of the dominion of Spain. The conference ended without an agreement.

Oglethorpe now returned to England to confer with the trustees and seek military strength for his colony. He informed them of the increase in the number of soldiers thrown into Florida, and the peril of the colony. He was commissioned a brigadier-general, with control over the military in Georgia and South Carolina. He arrived in the province with troops from England in the autumn of 1738, where he found general discontent.

The unwise regulations of the trustees, and the class of emigrants who had settled in the province, many of them unaccustomed to manual labor and habits of industry, did not promote prosperity. The use of slave labor was prohibited, and tillage neglected.

The greed of English merchants, who were growing rich by illicit trade on the coasts of South America at the expense of Spanish commerce, was fos-

tered by the British ministry, who were bent on destroying the Spanish colonial system in the so-called New World. Spain resented this interference with her rights, and for this—the real cause—England declared war against that Kingdom late in 1739.

Oglethorpe had just put an end to a conspiracy in Georgia to assassinate him, and a negro insurrection in South Carolina—both incited by Spanish emissaries. He heard of the declaration of war, and he decided to strike a blow before his enemy should be well prepared.

He penetrated Florida with a small force and captured some outposts early in 1740. In May he marched into Florida with six hundred regular troops, four hundred Carolina militia, and a large body of friendly Indians. He was before St. Augustine in June, after capturing two little forts, one within twenty miles of the city, and the other only two miles distant. An instant demand of the surrender of the fort and garrison was made, which was refused. He surrounded the town and blockaded the harbor. The blockade was weak, and the Spanish garrison soon obtained supplies. Oglethorpe resolved to abandon the siege, malaria had invaded his camp, and warned by the approach of the sickly season he returned to Savannah.

Hostilities were now suspended for almost two years, when the Spaniards determined to invade Georgia. With a fleet of thirty-six vessels from Cuba and a land force of about three thousand, they entered the harbor of St. Simons in July, 1742. The vigilant Oglethorpe was there before them, but with less than a thousand men, including Indians. The Governor of South Carolina had failed to furnish men or supplies and upon the Georgians devolved the task of defending both provinces from invasion. The intrepid general, when he saw the white sails of the Spanish vessels in the distance, went on board one of his own little vessels, and addressing the seamen, said: "We must protect Carolina and the rest of the colonies from destruction, or die in

the attempt. I rely on your valor, and believe we will be victorious.

The Spanish fleet passed the English batteries, and Oglethorpe fell back to Frederica. The reinforcements from South Carolina did not come, and he was annoyed by frequent attacks from the Spaniards, but he always repulsed them.

Oglethorpe at length resolved to act on the offensive, and make a stealthy night attack upon the Spanish encampment near St. Simons. He moved cautiously along a road he had constructed, with a dense forest on one side and a deep morass on the other. When he was near the camp, a Frenchman in his little army ran ahead, fired his musket, and deserted to the enemy. The Spaniards were aroused, and Oglethorpe fell back to Frederica.

The general punished the deserter in a novel way. He employed a Spanish prisoner to carry a letter to him, secretly, in which Oglethorpe addressed him as a spy in the enemy's camp. He told him to represent the Georgians as very weak in men and arms, and advise the Spaniards to attack them at once; and if they would not do so, to try and persuade them to remain at St. Simons three days longer, for within that time a British fleet, with two thousand land troops would arrive to attack St. Augustine. The bearer of the letter, as Oglethorpe expected and hoped he would, carried it to the Spanish commander. It produced a great commotion in camp. The Frenchman was arrested and put in irons, and afterward hanged as a spy. A council of war was held, and while it was in session some vessels from Carolina were seen at sea. They were mistaken for the British fleet alluded to, and the Spaniards determined to attack Oglethorpe immediately, and then hasten to the defense of St. Augustine.

An advanced division moved immediately on Frederica. On the narrow road flanked by the forest and the morass, within a mile of the fort, they were assailed by Oglethorpe and his Highlanders, who lay in ambush. Almost the whole party of the invaders

were killed or captured. A second party pressing forward to their relief, met the fate of the first. The Spaniards retreated in confusion, leaving about two hundred of their companions dead on the field. They fled to their ships and hastened to St. Augustine, only to find they had been outgeneraled by the governor of Georgia. The stratagem of Oglethorpe had worked such disaster to the Spanish expedition that its commander, Don Manuel de Monteano, was dismissed from the service. That stratagem probably saved Georgia and South Carolina from utter ruin.

Having firmly established the colony, Oglethorpe returned to England in 1743. In 1775, he was offered the command of the British army in this country, on the return of General Gage to England. His benevolent ideas did not suit the temper of the British ministry then, and General William Howe received the appointment. When, at the close of the revolution, John Adams went to England as American minister at the British Court, Oglethorpe was among the first to congratulate him because of the independence of this country. Oglethorpe died at the age of ninety years.

After the departure of Oglethorpe, Georgia enjoyed repose from conflicts with hostile neighbors. He left the

country in a state of tranquility. The same year it passed from the control of a mild military government to that of a civil organization, managed by a president and five councillors or assistants, under the supreme authority of the trustees in England. Yet the colony languished for reasons already mentioned, and general discontent prevailed. The laws relating to slave labor were evaded. Slaves were brought across from South Carolina, and hired to the Georgia planters for a hundred years, the sum paid for such service being the market value of the slave. The transaction was practically the introduction of the slave labor system into Georgia. It was not interfered with; and very soon ships laden with slaves from Africa came to Savannah, and men, women and children were offered for sale, in a way somewhat evasive of law, in the open market, by the auctioneer. In the year 1750, Georgia was really a slave labor province. Then agriculture flourished, and the colony took its place as a planting State in an equal position by the side of its sister across the Savannah.

In 1752, when the twenty-one years named in the charter had expired, the trustees gladly gave that instrument to the King, and Georgia became a royal province. So it remained until the old war for independence.

FOURTH PERIOD

FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR

The French in America, through the influence of the Jesuits, made a powerful impression upon the minds of the savages of this country, and easily persuaded them to become the friends of Frenchmen in peace and their allies in war. The seeds of the French dominion in America were planted by Champlain at Quebec. He selected for his companions and spiritual co-workers some of the mild and benevolent priests of the Franciscan Order, who, he said, were "free from ambition," except to be instrumental in the salvation of souls. But these priests were not sufficiently aggressive to suit the ambitious French Church, nor worldly-wise enough to serve the state in carrying out its political designs for enlarging its dominions in America. They were withdrawn, and to the Jesuits, was given the Franciscan Order, who, he said, converting the heathen of Canada. Champlain, with their help, established an alliance with the Hurons on the St. Lawrence and in the country westward; and so began the widespread affiliations between the French and Indians that became so disquieting to the English colonists.

As early as 1636 there were fifteen Jesuit priests in Canada—a band of men ready to endure any privation and suffer any danger in the service of their church. Champlain introduced three of these black robed missionaries—Brebeuf, Daniel and Davost—to an assemblage of Huron chiefs and sachems at Quebec. These priests followed the Hurons to their dominions, as far as the shores of Lake Huron, near which they planted their first mission house. They shared in all the toil and privations of their Indian allies in the long journey. The barbarians regarded them with awe and reverence, as the greatest "medicine men" they had ever known.

The extreme devotion to their religion was marvelous in the eyes of the wondering savages, and it was not long before whole tribes bowed in rude Jesuit chapels in the forest, and became nominal Christians. So the Jesuits took a firm grasp of the savage minds, and held a controlling influence over these children of the forest far and near, from the St. Lawrence to the Gulf of Mexico. A college was founded in Canada for the education of Indian boys, a year before Massachusetts took up that work. And very soon afterward a young and rich widow of France established the Ursuline Convent at Quebec for Indian girls. In 1640 they took possession of Montreal. Missionary after missionary followed, and in a space of thirteen years they had carried the Gospel and French power from Niagara to the shores of Lake Superior. In 1656, two young traders returned to Quebec, after being away two years, with tales of the magnificent country to the west. Father Allouez, a daring Jesuit went boldly into that region. To the Chippewas he proclaimed the King of France as their sovereign, and built mission houses there. From the Sioux he heard of the magnificent Mississippi River, which they called the Father of Waters. This intelligence reaching Quebec, Fathers Marquette and Dablon, set out to explore the mysterious land and plant the banner of the cross in the very heart of the heathen world. They labored in the cause of religion among the Chippewas, and gave efficient aid to Joliet, a French agent, in his political designs, when he arrived there. At the Falls of St. Mary, after summoning a convention of all the Indian tribes between Lakes Huron and Superior he built a chapel, raised the cross, and took possession of the country in the name of France.

Marquette resolved to reach the Mississippi River. With Joliet he went up the Fox River to the water shed between the Mississippi and the Lakes, and crossing the portage went down the Wisconsin River to its mouth. Late in June, 1673, they were upon the bosom of that mighty river which De Soto had discovered a century and a quarter before. The Indians called it *Mississippi*, which, in their language, signified The Great Water.

They now sailed down the river with winds and currents, past the inflowing waters of the Missouri and Ohio, and other less tributaries, holding friendly intercourse with the natives. Below the mouth of the Arkansas River they met a hostile tribe of sun-worshippers, who had axes of steel, which implied intercourse with Europeans.

Marquette being now satisfied that the Mississippi did not flow into the Atlantic or Pacific Ocean, but at some intermediate receptacle he sailed northward with Joliet and his companions, and reached Green Bay before the frosts of October were seen there. Marquette labored among the Indians in the neighborhood of Chicago for two years. He crossed over to the eastern shore of Lake Michigan, where he was taken mortally sick, and died on the banks of the Mackinack.

At this time Robert Cavalier de la Salle, a young Frenchman who had been educated for the priesthood in a Jesuit seminary but who preferred a secular life, was settled at the foot of Lake Ontario, and had a monopoly of the fur trade with the Five Nations south of the lake. He built a fort on the site of modern Kingston and named it Frontenac, in honor of his patron. The mild Franciscans were now tolerated in Canada, and were carrying on their religious work among the Indians under favor of La Salle.

La Salle stirred by the adventures of De Soto, and his ambition influenced by the story of Marquette's voyages on the Mississippi, and of the beauty and wealth of the country through which the Ohio River flowed, determined to attempt the establishment of a widely

extended commerce with the natives there, and, if possible, plant colonies in the vast wilderness. He went to France, and obtained the support of Colbert, the famous minister of Louis the Fourteenth.

The King gave him a monopoly of the fur trade among the Indians, and a commission to perfect the explorations of the Mississippi River. La Salle returned to Fort Frontenac in 1678, with some mechanics and others, and Tonti, an Italian as his lieutenant. With these, and some Franciscan priests, they crossed Lake Ontario and went up the Niagara River to the site of Lewiston. They established a trading post, built a sailing vessel in which they crossed the lakes to Mackinack, and pushing forward anchored in Green Bay, west of Lake Michigan. La Salle now sent his vessel back with a cargo of furs, and awaited her return. He tarried among the Miamies at Chicago for some time, when with Tonti, Father Hennepin, two other Franciscans and about thirty followers, boldly penetrated the wilderness westward on foot and in canoes, until he reached Lake Peoria, in Illinois. There he built a fort, and sent Father Hennepin forward to explore the Upper Mississippi, while he returned to Frontenac to look after his property.

Hennepin went up the Mississippi River as far as St. Anthony's Falls, which he discovered, and named after his patron saint. In the fall of 1680, he returned to Green Bay by the way of the Wisconsin and Fox Rivers. In the meantime Tonti had been driven out of Illinois by the savages, and had taken refuge among the Indians on the west shore of Lake Michigan.

La Salle returned to the Illinois country, and early in 1682 he started on an exploration of the Mississippi River, with twenty-three Frenchmen and eighteen New England Indians with ten women and three children. They reached the Mississippi in February, and descended the mighty river to the Gulf of Mexico, everywhere observing evidences of unbounded wealth in the bosom of the soil along its course. They

held intercourse with the Indians at many places along its shores. At one place below the Arkansas River they found a powerful King over many tribes, to whom La Salle sent presents. Mutual assurances of friendship passed between them. The people over whom this King ruled were a part of those barbarians of the Gulf region who worshipped the sun. They were called Taenses.

La Salle proceeded southward to the Gulf of Mexico and proclaimed the whole Mississippi Valley as part of the dominion of France. He named the magnificent domain *Louisiana* in honor of the King of France.

La Salle now went back to Quebec, and then hastened to France and laid a report of his discovery before the court. La Salle procured from the King a commission to colonize Louisiana. With four ships and almost three hundred emigrants, La Salle sailed from Rochelle late in July, 1684, for the Mississippi River by way of St. Domingo. His company consisted of one hundred soldiers, and the remainder were chiefly artisans and farmers, with a few young women. La Salle had difficulties with the commanders of the ships, and it caused him to miss the mouths of the Mississippi while sailing westward over the Gulf of Mexico. They found themselves in Matagordo Bay, on the coast of Texas, and there La Salle determined to disembark. In a gale the store ship was lost, and the timid ones among the emigrants returned with the vessels to France. Two hundred and thirty emigrants remained with La Salle. He constructed a fort named St. Louis, and claimed the country in the name of France.

In December, 1685, he and some of his men departed in search of the Mississippi. After penetrating to almost the Red River, he was compelled to return to the fort, as desertions, deaths, and loss of supplies, would allow him to go no further. After another fruitless search for rich mines in New Mexico, of which he had heard, he returned to the fort disappointed in the spring of 1686.

La Salle now determined to go to

Canada for reinforcements and supplies for his colony in Louisiana. Leaving a garrison at Fort St. Louis he departed with sixteen men and five wild horses which he had procured in New Mexico. They crossed Texas to the uplands of Trinity River, when some of the men became mutinous. Two of them who had embarked all their fortunes in the enterprise, and who blamed La Salle for their losses, conspired against his life. One of these, named Duhaut, killed him while he was searching for his nephew (one of the party), who had been already murdered. His body was plundered and left to be devoured by eagles and wolves. Some of the party managed to make their way to Canada with the sad tidings of the explorer's death.

The French now claimed all the country from Newfoundland to the Gulf of Mexico, excepting the narrow border of territory on the sea coasts occupied by the English. They coveted the whole country and resolved to possess it. Trading posts, mission stations and colonies had followed in the path of their explorers, and New Orleans had been founded early in the eighteenth century. Their alliance with the Indians, through the Jesuits, had that object in view, and for forty-five years after the death of Louis the Fourteenth, the struggle for the mastery between the French and English settlements continued. It was ended only when the English, by force of arms, and by conquest stripped France of a great portion of its claimed territory in our country.

Several of the European nations contributed materials for the English-American colonies. Although these people were of opposite tastes, habits and religious views, as a rule, they mingled with each other without asperity; and when the time came for a political union no serious antagonism was apparent. The different Protestant sects and the Roman Catholics, though often narrow in their views, manifested a common love of liberty, and acted upon the common rule that the majority should govern.

A great majority of the emigrants

were English, Scotch, Dutch and Swedes. The Irish and French were few at first. Denmark and the regions of the Baltic contributed a considerable number, and natives from Africa were soon scattered among the white population of all the colonies. The colonies had been founded without the aid of the British government, with the exception of Georgia, and often in defiance of the expressed wishes and absolute decrees. Subjects of the same perils and hardships, there grew up among them, insensibly, a brotherhood of feeling that prepared the people of thirteen of the colonies, after uniting in resistance to the aggressiveness of the French during a war of more than seven years duration, to resist, almost as one man, every form of oppression, when the government to which they acknowledged their allegiance became an oppressor.

Owing to their origin, early habits and the climate a great diversity of character was seen among the inhabitants. Virginia was settled from classes in English society, where a lack of rigid moral discipline allowed freelifing, and its attendant vices. The mild climate tended to produce voluptuousness and ease among them, and their southern neighbors. The settlers of New England were from the middling classes of society. Very rigid in their manners, shy and jealous of strangers. They included a great many religious enthusiasts, who were very strict in their faith. Their legislation tended to control the most minute regulations of social life.

The ideas, manners, customs and pursuits of the Dutch made a deep impression upon the colonists of New York, and portions of New Jersey and Pennsylvania. They were industrious, frugal and plodding money-getters, loving personal ease and freedom from disturbance. They were averse to change, and followed the customs of their fathers. But they had many of the substantial virtues that are necessary in giving health and stability to a state. The Swedes and Finns on the Delaware did not differ much from the Dutch.

The Friends, whose influence predominated in West Jersey and Pennsylvania, were quite different. They won the esteem and respect of every class by their refined simplicity. They governed their daily life by a religious sentiment, without fanticism, which was a powerful safeguard against vice and immorality.

The Maryland settlers were less restrained but greater formalists in their religion than either New Englanders or the Dutch. At the middle of the eighteenth century inter-migration had greatly modified the peculiarities of the inhabitants. They were industrious and generally more refined than the colonists of the East. Religious intolerance had been published; and when common danger called for common defenders of the soil and of the chartered rights of the colonists, they stood shoulder to shoulder in battle array and in legislative halls.

The principal pursuit of the English-American colonists was agriculture in the middle of the eighteenth century. Commerce and manufacturers were struggling against unwise and unjust laws for existence. Manual labor was regarded as honorable and dignified, especially in New England and the adjoining provinces. The evil example of an idle privileged class was never before the settlers in the forests of America. There was no trade that may be dignified by the name of commerce before the revolution. Early in 1636, a Massachusetts vessel made a voyage to the West Indies; and two years later another vessel went from Salem to New Providence, and returned with a cargo of cotton, salt, tobacco and negroes. This was the beginning of negro slavery in New England. It was recognized by law in Massachusetts in 1641; in Connecticut and Rhode Island, about 1650; in New York, in 1656; in Maryland, in 1663; and in New Jersey, in 1665. There were but a few slaves in Pennsylvania as early as 1690, chiefly in Philadelphia.

These successful voyages, and the extensive fishing industry, were harbingers of an American commerce to

the New England people, but the jealousy of the English caused navigation laws to be passed by Parliament in 1651, and more stringent ones in 1660. New England now saw that its commerce was doomed. The attention of Parliament had been called from time to time to the industries of the American colonies. Laws were passed by the House of Commons, in 1719, to discourage these industries, and in 1750 an act was passed forbidding the erection of any iron works. Hats were forbidden to be exported from one colony to another. Sugar, molasses and rum were burdened with exorbitant duties. In the Carolinas it was actually forbidden to cut down a tree in their vast pine forests for the purpose of making staves or turpentine. And so for about a hundred years the British government had attempted by restrictive laws to confine the commerce of the colonies to the interchange of their agricultural products for English manufacture only. These acts of oppression constituted the chief item in the "bill of particulars" presented by the Americans in the account with Great Britain when, on the Fourth of July, 1776, they gave to the world their reasons for declaring themselves "free and independent" of the British crown.

Education received special attention in most of the colonies. Early in 1621 schools were established in Virginia for white and Indian children. These schools did not flourish, and the funds were finally given to the support of William and Mary College, which was founded at Williamsburg, in Virginia, in 1692, fifty-four years before the Rev. John Harvard had given half of his estate and three hundred of his books for the founding of a college at Cambridge, Massachusetts, which bears his name. Yale College was founded at Saybrook, at the mouth of the Connecticut River, in 1701. It was removed to New Haven, Connecticut in 1717, the birthplace of Elihu Yale, then president of the English East India Company, from whom it derives its name. King's (now Columbia) College was established in New York City in 1750, and

these four colleges composed the chief seats of learning when the French and Indian war broke out.

The common schools—the glory and pride of New England especially—were flourishing. In the early existence of Connecticut laws were provided that every town and organized religious community containing one hundred householders should maintain a grammar school. Similar provisions were made throughout New England.

The first newspaper published in the colonies appeared in September, 1690, entitled "Public Occurances Both Foreign and Domestic." Only one number of this newspaper was issued. The first permanent newspaper was "The Boston News-Letter," first issued in the spring of 1704. The first in Pennsylvania was "The American," published in Philadelphia in 1719. The first in New York was "The New York Gazette," in 1725; the first in Maryland was "The Maryland Gazette," issued at Annapolis in the summer of 1728. "The South Carolina Gazette," issued at Charleston at the beginning of 1732; "The Rhode Island Gazette," printed at Newport in 1732; "The Virginia Gazette," printed at Williamsburg in 1736; "The Connecticut Gazette," printed at New Haven in 1755; "The North Carolina Gazette," printed at New Berne the same year, and the "New Hampshire Gazette," printed at Portsmouth in the summer of 1756, were the first newspapers published in these colonies. At the period of the French and Indian war newspapers were printed in all the colonies excepting in New Jersey, Delaware and Georgia. The printing machines on which all the colonial newspapers and books were printed were simple in form and rude in construction.

Of the number of inhabitants at that time of the colonies Mr. Bancroft, after a careful examination of many official returns, makes the following statement: Massachusetts, 207,000 whites; New Hampshire, 50,000 whites, and in these two colonies about 3,000 blacks; Connecticut, 133,000 whites, 3,500 blacks; Rhode Island, 35,000 whites, 4,500

blacks; New York, 85,000 whites, 11,000 blacks; New Jersey, 73,000 whites, 5,000 blacks; Pennsylvania and Delaware, 195,000 whites, 11,000 blacks; Maryland, 104,000 whites, 44,000 blacks; Virginia, 168,000 whites, 116,000 blacks; North Carolina, 70,000 whites, 20,000 blacks; South Carolina, 40,000 whites, 40,000 blacks; Georgia, 5,000 whites, 2,000 blacks.

Making the number of white inhabitants in all the colonies about 1,165,000, and the blacks (who were mostly slaves) to be 260,000.

The colonists were tillers of the earth, scattered over an immense territory from Nova Scotia to Florida, united by mild government. The British ministry treated the colonists as minor children, or as absolute subjects to be governed without question, but the lofty idea of republicanism was working out in the provinces through local self-government.

The common danger from the Indians caused a confederation of the New England colonies in 1643. A half a century later William Penn put forth a plan for a union of all the colonies. In 1684 a congress had been held at Albany, composed of the officers of the governments of Massachusetts, New York, Maryland and Virginia, and sachems of the Five Nations. When it was resolved to invade Canada, in 1711, a convention was held at New London, Connecticut, to consult upon the matter. In 1722, a congress of colonial officials and Indian sachems was held at Albany for the promotion of a friendly feeling and the strengthening of the alliance then existing with the Iroquois Confederacy. In 1744, a similar congress for the same purpose, met at Lancaster, in Pennsylvania, where over two hundred and fifty representatives of the Six (late Five) Nations were in attendance.

The last of these colonial congresses, all exhibiting tendencies toward a national union, was held at Albany in the summer of 1748. The congress was called for a two-fold purpose. One was to strengthen the bonds of friendship with the Six Nations and their savage neighbors on the west. This was

successful. The other, advanced by Governor Clinton, of New York, and Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, was to abridge the rights of the people. The royal governors gained nothing by the congress. Clinton, after violent quarrels with all political factions in the province, abandoned the government in disgust and returned home. Sir Danvers Osborne, who succeeded him, foreseeing much trouble ahead, he became despondent. This state of mind was aggravated by grief because of the recent death of his wife, and he hanged himself.

But more urgent consideration occupied the attention of the British government and the American colonies at that time. The French, from the time of the capture of Louisburg in 1745, had put forth the most vigorous efforts for the extension and strengthening of their dominion in America. They were resolved on a persistent strife for power; and their aggressive movements about the year 1753 aroused the British government and the American colonial assemblies and people to the necessity of employing equally vigorous measures for opposing their common enemy. Then the colonists united among themselves and with the Home Government in defense of British dominion in America. Then began the conflict known in America as the *French and Indian War*, and in Europe as the *Seven Years' War*.

Virginians and Marylanders had proposed the planting of an English colony beyond the Allegheny Mountains. The governor of Virginia was instructed by the King to grant to a company of speculators five hundred thousand acres of land on the north side of the Ohio between the present site of Pittsburgh and the mouth of the Kanawha River. This company was known as *The Ohio Land Company*. They were to settle one hundred families on the tract, within seven years, and at their own expense to build a fort there. Robert Dinwiddie, of Scotland, then surveyor general for the southern colonies, and soon after made lieutenant governor of Virginia, was one of the proprietors.

The Ohio Land Company took meas-

ures for defining and occupying their domain. Thomas Lee, Augustine and Lawrence Washington, and other leading Virginia members of the Company, ordered goods to be sent from London for trading with the Indians. The Company knew of the richness and fertility of the country beyond the mountains from reports of English traders. As a preliminary movement the Company took measures to obtain information concerning the best lands within their grant. In the autumn of 1750 Christopher Gist, a Virginian, who was a bold and skilful woodsman, and acquainted with Indian life, was employed to spy out the land and ascertain the strength of the Indian tribes. At the close of October, Gist made his way over the mountains, crossed the Ohio river, and made his way to Logstown, where it was proposed to hold an Indian council. He was received with coolness by the Indians, but undaunted he pressed forward to the Muskingum, stopping at a village of the Ottowas, who were friends of the French. The Wyandots at Muskingum received him cordially, and there he found George Croghan, an emissary of the Pennsylvanians, who were jealous of the Ohio Company, regarding them as rivals seeking a monopoly of the trade with the Indians of the Northwest. He pushed on, with Grogan, and some other traders, until they reached the Scioto River a few miles from its mouth. There dwelt the Delawares; and a short distance below the Scioto, on both sides of the Ohio, were the Shawnees. Both professed friendship for the English, and a willingness to attend a general council at Logstown. They went northward to the land of the Miamis, a confederacy more powerful than the Iroquois, with whom they were friendly. A treaty of alliance was made, and arrangements were made for all the friendly tribes to meet at Logstown. Gist now returned to Virginia, and reported his information to Lawrence Washington, at Mount Vernon, then chief director of the Ohio Company. The promised council was held with the western tribes in June, 1752, when

friendly relations were established by a treaty. But the Indians steadily refused to grant titles to the land west of the Alleghenies to either the English or the French.

The jealousy of the French was now aroused, for they considered the English as intruders. They saw the ultimate destruction of their line of fortified communication between Canada and the Gulf of Mexico. In 1753, they imprisoned some English surveyors and traders, and erected forts at Presq-isle, now Erie, and another at Le Boeuf, now Waterford, and a third at the junction of French Creek and the Allegheny River, on the site of the village of Franklin.

The Ohio Company complained of these hostile demonstrations. These lands were in the chartered limits of Virginia, and the authorities felt it their duty to interfere in defense of the rights of the Company. The English government had instructed the governors of Virginia and Pennsylvania to expel the French by force of arms, if necessary. Robert Dinwiddie, governor of Virginia, and one of the Company, determined to first send a letter of remonstrance to M. de St. Pierre, the French commander. Now, George Washington, who was destined to occupy a conspicuous place in the history of our country and of the world, first appeared in public action, at the very opening of the drama whose closing scene was the founding of a mighty nation.

Young Washington was then little more than twenty-one years of age, of an excellent and honorable family, whose roots lay far back in English history. He was a foster-son of old Lord Fairfax; and as a public surveyor and skilful hunter, had traversed the forests of Virginia far and near, in the direction of the Ohio. At the age of nineteen he had been commissioned a major of militia, charged with defending the colony against the Indians. He had been called from that service to attend upon a dying brother, but he had evinced, during his short service, such an aptitude for military pursuits, and such faithfulness in performance, that

he was marked for prompt promotion.

Dinwiddie sent for Major Washington. He appeared promptly at the room of the lieutenant governor in the old state house at Williamsburg, late in October, 1753. Young Washington was full six feet in height, strongly built, with a florid complexion and every indication of high health and physical strength. The governor gave him a commission and instructions to proceed to the quarters of the French commander, and present to him in person a letter from Dinwiddie, in which the governor inquired by what authority French troops had presumed to intrude upon the territory of the British monarch, and what were his designs. It was a mission of great delicacy, and discretion, ability, courage, physical endurance, experience in woodcraft and a knowledge of Indian manners were requisite. Believing young Washington to be possessed of all of these in an eminent degree the governor chose him to be his ambassador, out of hundreds of more pretentious aristocracy of Virginia.

Washington was directed to proceed to Logstown (on the right bank of the Ohio, about fourteen miles below the site of Pittsburgh); convene influential Indian chiefs there; tell them the object of his visit, and request them to furnish him with a competent escort as a safeguard to the headquarters of the French commander. There he was to demand an answer to Dinwiddie's letter in the name of his King; to observe with caution the number of troops that crossed the lake; perceive the number and strength of their forts, and their distance from each other, and gain all information possible concerning the French on the English frontier. With these instructions Washington left Williamsburg, on the thirty-first of October, and was joined by John Davidson, an Indian interpreter, and Jacob Van Braam, a Hollander by birth, and acquainted with the French language. On his way he was joined by Gist, who acted as guide. With these and four other men (two of them Indian traders), they left the borders of civiliza-

tion at the mouth of Wills Creek (now Cumberland, Maryland), and made their way over the Allegheny Mountains, then covered with snow. They endured every hardship incident to a dreary wilderness and the rigors of winter. Late in November they reached the forks of the Ohio, on the site of Pittsburgh, and then proceeded to Logstown, accompanied by an influential sachem of the Delawares.

A bold and patriotic chief named Half-King, who had protested against the French building a fort in his country, and supposed the English were only traders, acted as an escort to the eight members of Washington's company to the headquarters of M. de St. Pierre, which was one hundred and twenty miles from Logstown.

They arrived at Fort Venango (now Franklin) in December. M. Joncaire, the commandant, received the English with civility, but tried to detach and detain the Indians, hoping to shake their confidence in the English, but he did not succeed.

Washington found St. Pierre at Fort Le Boeuf. Here was the end of the Virginia ambassador's journey of forty-one days. The French commandant received him and his companions with great politeness. He received the governor's letter with thanks; entertained the bearer and his friends four days, and then delivered into the hands of Major Washington a sealed letter in reply to Dinwiddie's. With this letter and much useful information respecting the forts and forces of the French, Washington returned to Williamsburg at the end of January.

The return journey was more perilous and fatiguing than the first. A greater portion of it was performed by Washington and Gist alone and on foot. At one time they were fired on by Indians, supposed to have been incited to the deed by Joncaire. On another occasion, after working all day in constructing a raft, they attempted to cross the swift and swollen current of the Allegheny River on it. The stream was filled with floating ice. They embarked at twilight and soon found themselves buffeting

great perils. Washington while holding a setting pole was jerked off into the water ten feet deep. The raft was crushed, and the travelers thoroughly drenched were cast upon a desert island where they lay upon the snow all night, hungry and half frozen. The next morning the channel of the river was frozen over, and they crossed on the ice, and toward evening reached the cabin of a Scotch settler, near the spot where a year and a half afterward Braddock fought the French and Indians in the battle of the Monongahela. The island on which the travelers were wrecked is directly opposite the United States Arsenal, at Lawrenceville, Pennsylvania, and is known as Washington's Island.

Major Washington and his companion now rested two or three days for their own refreshment and to procure horses. During that time the major paid a complimentary visit to the Indian Queen, Aliquippi, who resided at the confluence of the Monongahela and Youghioghaney Rivers, in the southeastern part of Allegheny County. She had complained of his neglect in not calling on her when on his outward journey. Young Washington explained the circumstances that prevented him, and with an apology he gave her a coat and a bottle of rum. The latter, Washington wrote, "was thought the much better present of the two, and harmony of feeling was restored. Aliquippa, who was a woman of great energy, and had performed some brave deeds, was held in respect amounting almost to reverence by the Indians in Western Pennsylvania.

St. Pierre's reply to Governor Dinwiddie caused immediate preparations for war. He said it did not become him as a soldier to discuss civil matters; that Dinwiddie's letter should have been sent to the Marquis Du Quesne, the governor of Canada, by whose orders he acted and whose instructions he should carefully obey; and that the summons of the governor of Virginia to the French to retire from the country could not be complied with. Under general instructions from the King the governor

authorized the enlistment of two hundred men to march to the Ohio River and build two forts there. Major Washington was commissioned a lieutenant colonel, and placed in command of the troops to be raised. Washington authorized Captain Trent to enlist men among the traders and frontier settlers. An appeal was now sent to all the colonies for help. All hesitated except North Carolina, whose Assembly immediately voted men and money for the purpose. After much debate the Virginia House of Burgesses authorized the raising of a regiment of six companies, and appointed Joshua Fry, an English born gentleman, colonel, and young Washington as his lieutenant. On the recommendation of Washington the Forks of the Ohio—the site of Pittsburgh—was chosen the place on which to build the first fort; and Captain Trent was instructed to employ his recruits in its construction.

Early in April Washington left Alexandria with a small force, and reached Will's Creek (now Cumberland) on the 20th. He was met on the way by a swift Indian runner, sent by Half-King, with the message that the French were embarking on the Allegheny at Venango. He was met by another runner, who said the French were at the Forks; and the next day an ensign from Trent's company came with the startling news that the French, a thousand strong, with eighteen cannon, sixty bateaux and three hundred canoes, had come down the Allegheny under command of Captain Contrecoeur, and taken possession of the unfinished fort. The French immediately finished the fort on a stronger plan, and called it Du Quesne in honor of the governor of Canada.

Colonel Fry had not yet joined the advance, and Washington assumed the responsibility of pressing forward. With only a small number of men and few supplies he made his way through the wilderness, and early in May they stood on the banks of the Youghioghaney, within forty miles of Fort Du Quesne. Washington, hearing from Half-King, that the French were near, fell back to

a plain which he had crossed, called the Great Meadows. There he built a stockade and named it Fort Necessity. It was near the modern national road between Cumberland and Wheeling, in the southeastern part of Fayette County, Pennsylvania.

Washington, now understanding that a party of Frenchmen were lying in ambush not far away, decided to attack them. With forty men of his command and some friendly Indians, he marched against the foe. They were discovered among some rocks. Washington, who was at the head of the party and carried a musket, when he saw the Frenchmen, shouted *Fire!* and at the same moment discharged his own gun among them. After a fight of about fifteen minutes, Jumonville, the commander of the French party, and ten of his men were killed, and all of the remainder were captured but fifteen, who escaped. This skirmish occurred on the 28th day of May, 1754, and was the first blood shed in the *French and Indian war*. When the news of this engagement reached Europe, the French denounced Washington as a murderer, but the proof that Jumonville was the bearer of a hostile message, and his skulking in ambush is proof of his hostile intentions. The war had begun by the capturing of the fort at the Forks, and every circumstance justified the conduct of Washington.

Colonel Fry having died at Will's Creek, Washington was left in chief command. He was now joined at Fort Necessity by more troops, and by Indians under Half-King and Queen Aliquippa. On the 3rd of July, Washington was here attacked by a large force of French and Indians, under M. de Villiers, a brother of Jumonville, and compelled to surrender the fort and troops. It was agreed, in the terms of the capitulation, that he and his troops were to return to the inhabited portion of the country, the French prisoners were to be released, and he was not to erect any establishment west of the mountains for a space of one year.

Meanwhile a civil movement of great importance had taken place in the col-

onies. It was a movement in the direction of a national union. The Indians, especially the Six Nations (the Five Nations having been joined by the Tuscaroras when they were driven from North Carolina), were becoming uneasy, through the influence of the French missionaries. Measures were now taken to get the good will of the Indians. The British Secretary of State proposed a convention of the colonies, and on the 19th of June, 1754, twenty-five delegates from Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, Pennsylvania and Maryland met in the old City Hall in Albany. The most remarkable man of all was Dr. Franklin, of Philadelphia, then almost fifty years of age. "King Hendrick," the eminent Mohawk sachem who was killed near Lake George the following year, while battling for the English, and the chiefs of the Six Nations were there in great force. A treaty was made, on the whole, satisfactory to both parties. Through the suggestion of the Massachusetts delegates, a *Plan of Union*, conceived by Dr. Franklin, was adopted by the convention. It was rejected by both the crown and the different assemblies.

The British ministry now resolved to recover what had been lost, and create a new colony west of the Allegheny Mountains. Dinwiddie was instructed to grant to any settler in the Ohio region not more than a thousand acres of land, and he was also ordered to prepare for a winter campaign against the French. It was late in the year, and the mountains were covered with snow drifts, making them impassable for an army inadequately supplied. Washington knew this; and he so advised the governor's council. His words were heeded, and the mad scheme abandoned.

French emissaries were now busy among the savage tribes west of the mountains, inciting them to a war of extermination against the English. A murderous raid had already been made against the New England frontier. Massachusetts, New York, Maryland and Virginia made appropriations to raise troops to defend the colonies, and

the British government sent over fifty thousand dollars for the same purpose. Governor Sharpe, of Maryland, was made temporary commander-in-chief of the colonial forces. This led to injurious disputes among the Virginia officers, when Dinwiddie, entirely ignorant of military affairs, assumed the responsibility of arranging these affairs in his colony as he pleased. He enlarged the provincial army to ten companies of one hundred men each, so that the highest rank was captain, inferior to the same rank of those commissioned by the crown. Washington would not submit to the degradation, but resigned his commission and retired from the military service. It was urged by the governor for him to remain in the army, and intimated that he might hold his former commission. He declined the empty appointment, and added: "I shall have the consolation of knowing that I have opened the way when the smallness of our numbers exposed us to the attacks of a superior enemy; and I have had the thanks of my country for the services I have rendered."

That winter Franklin had a conference at Boston with Governor Shirley, in relation to a union of the colonies for mutual defense. Their views differed, and the governor said that he would recommend a union planned by Parliament and also a tax.

The British government now resolved to send military aid to the colonists. Edward Braddock, an Irish officer of distinction, was appointed commander-in-chief of all the British forces in America, and ordered to proceed to Virginia with two regiments of regular troops. He was ordered to call a council of the royal governors, and exact a revenue from the colonies for military service. "To establish a fund for the benefit of all the colonies collectively in North America"—a financial union—and that the general and field officers of the provincial forces should have no rank when serving with the general and field officer commissioned by the King.

Braddock arrived with two regiments, carried by the fleet under Admiral "Keppel," in the spring of 1755. In

April, at a meeting of the governors, he was advised that the Assemblies would not grant his demands, and that the colonies must be forced to pay the expenses of the royal troops.

The warm weather was coming, and so were the French and Indians. So the council of governors planned the campaign of 1755. General Braddock was to proceed against Fort Du Quesne, General Shirley was to lead an expedition against Fort Niagara and Fort Frontenac, and William Johnson (a nephew of Admiral Warren) was to attempt the seizure of Crown Point on Lake Champlaine. A fourth expedition had already been planned on the east, for the expulsion of the French from Nova Scotia, and possibly the recapture of Louisburg.

All the colonial legislatures voted men and supplies, except Pennsylvania and Georgia. The Quaker Assembly of Pennsylvania were conscientiously opposed to military movements, and Georgia was too poor in men and money to do anything.

About the time the Ohio Land Company was granted its charter, the English government was trying to secure dominion over Nova Scotia or Acadie. These people were simple minded French farmers, and were Roman Catholics in religion. The French priests were trying to have them settle on the frontier, so as to be a barrier against the English. At about the same time Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, proposed to remove them, and distribute them among the English colonies. He finally induced the British government to settle disbanded soldiers and marines amongst them. During the year 1749, about fourteen hundred of these, led by Colonel Cornwallis, went among the Acadians, and planted the first English town east of the Penobscot, and named it Halifax. The Acadians about twenty years before had submitted to English rule, and had been promised freedom in religious matters, and exemption from bearing arms against the French and Indians. They were now commanded to take the oath of allegiance to the British crown in religious

matters, and to be subjected to all the duties of English subjects. About a thousand of them asked permission to sell their lands, and remove to some French settlement, but were refused.

The Indians, who had been incited to furious raids on the New England frontier, by the Jesuits, were commanded to give instant submission to the English. They refused, and orders were given by Colonel Cornwallis that ten guineas would be paid for every Indian taken or killed.

After the French lost Louisburg, in 1745, they built strong vessels at the foot of Lake Ontario; made stronger their little trading fort at Niagara; built a cordon of fortifications, more than sixty in number, between Montreal and New Orleans; claimed dominion over all the territory drained by the tributaries of the Mississippi, with the plea that they were the discoverers of a greater portion of that stream, and were negotiating treaties with the powerful Delawares and Shawnees, on the frontiers of Pennsylvania and Virginia. The English perceived the real and impending danger. Hence the desire to plant English settlements in Canada, and to the west of the Alleghenies.

When the French heard that Keppel had sailed with Braddock's troops they sent a fleet with soldiers, under Baron Dieskau, who was accompanied by Vaudreuil, the successor of Du Quesne as governor of Canada. Admiral Boscawen, with some English ships pursued the French fleet. South of Newfoundland they came together, and two of the French ships were captured, and the remainder escaped and landed the governor, with Dieskau and his troops at Quebec, late in June. Meanwhile the eastern expedition of three thousand men, under John Winslow sailed from Boston, in May, 1755. The French at Beau-Sejour and other military posts on the peninsula were taken. The Acadians who had been forced into the French service were granted an amnesty. They readily took an oath of allegiance, but could not pledge themselves to bear arms against their kindred in nation and religion. The chief

justice of Nova Scotia decided that any one not taking all the required oaths could not hold lands in the British dominion. So it was determined to drive them out of the province and force them to settle in the English colonies. The French government asked for them the privilege of their lands, taking with them their effects, and choosing for themselves their future home. The offer was refused. A general proclamation was issued ordering all the Acadians, "old men and young men, and lads ten years of age, to assemble at designated places, on the 5th of September, 1755. They obeyed. The proceedings at one place afford a fair picture of those at all others. At Grand Pré, four hundred and eighteen unarmed men were assembled. They were told that everything had been forfeited to the crown with the exception of their money and household goods. Nineteen hundred and twenty-three men, women and children were driven aboard British vessels at the point of the bayonet, from Grand Pré alone, and distributed among the colonies, from the Penobscot to the Savannah, without resources. Some wandered through the forests to Louisiana and Canada. Some sought refuge among the Indians. The fate of the people of Grand Pré was the fate of all. The wrath of the English excited against the French for their long and cruel warfare upon the frontier settlements of New England, with their savage allies was poured out in full measure upon the heads of this innocent pastoral people, who had never voluntarily lifted sword nor spear nor firebrand to harm the English.

While these movements in the East were going on it was decided to make an expedition for the recovery of Fort Du Quesne. In an interview with Dr. Franklin, Braddock had boasted what he would do elsewhere, after he had captured the fort. The philosopher, seeing how shallow was the general's knowledge of the impediments before him, ventured to inform him. But it was impossible to make any impression on him.

The army for the recovery of Fort

DuQuesne assembled at Alexandria. Colonels Dunbar and Sir Peter Halket were Braddock's chief lieutenants. There Colonel Washington, who had been invited by Braddock to join his military family as aide and retain his title, and had agreed to accept the position, but as volunteer only, had his first interview with the general. The army had been detained at Will's Creek (Cumberland), Maryland, by lack of horses and wagons, which were supplied by Dr. Franklin. Here Washington joined them in May. The whole force, regulars and provincials, each in about equal numbers, was two thousand men. Braddock had supreme contempt for the provincials, and on account of the delays of some of the army contractors, charged the whole American people with a lack of ability, honor and honesty. He raved at times like a madman and Washington found him, as he wrote to William Fairfax, "incapable of arguing without warmth, or giving up any point he asserts, be it ever so incompatible with reason or common sense.

The distance from Cumberland to Fort DuQuesne was about one hundred and thirty miles. At the close of May five hundred pioneers were sent forward to clear a pathway and collect stores at Fort Necessity; but the main army was not ready to move until the 10th of June. This delay gave the French time, and they were well prepared to meet the English. On Washington's advice, the general consented to move part of the army forward in light marching order, with the artillery, leaving the remainder to move more slowly. Washington was placed in command of the provincials. They reached the forks of the Monongahela and Youghiogony rivers on the 8th of July. On the 9th they crossed the Monongahela. Washington knew the perils of the situation, for the troops were disposed in solid platoons. He ventured to remonstrate with Braddock, and advised him to employ the Indian mode of fighting in the forests. The general angrily said: "What! a provincial

colonel teach a British general how to fight!"

De Beaujeu, the commander of a party of less than three hundred French and Canadians, and a little more than six hundred Indians had been sent from Fort DuQuesne, by Contrecoeur, to meet the advancing English. They came upon the latter sooner than De Beaujeu expected, but the ambush was quickly and skilfully formed. He fought bravely and fell in the first deadly onslaught of the combatants.

The sudden attack and the horrid war-whoop of the Indians, frightened and disconcerted the regulars, and they were thrown into confusion, and nothing saved the little army but Washington and the provincials, who fought as the Indians did. The regulars soon became unmanageable, but the officers fought nobly. Braddock was in the front of the fight, rallying his recoiling troops. The battle raged for more than two hours. Of eighty-six English officers sixty-three were killed or wounded, among the former was Sir Peter Halket. One-half of the private soldiers were also killed or wounded. So bravely did the provincials maintain their ground that they were nearly all killed. Of three Virginia companies only about thirty men were left alive. Braddock had five horses shot and disabled under him, and at last received a bullet through the body and fell mortally wounded. Washington wrote to his mother from Cumberland, "The dastardly behavior of the regulars exposed all others who were inclined to do their duty to almost certain death." Washington rallied the provincial troops and gallantly covered the retreat, leaving their cannon and their dead on the battlefield. Braddock was buried in the forest about fifty miles from Cumberland. Colonel Dunbar, in the rear, received the broken army. They abandoned Fort Cumberland and marched to Philadelphia. Washington and the southern provincials went back to Virginia, and so ended the second expedition of the campaign of 1755. "I luckily escaped without a wound," wrote Washington to his mother,

"though I had four bullets through my coat, and two horses shot under me." Washington was never wounded in battle.

Governor Shirley was appointed Braddock's successor in chief command of the British forces in America. The expedition led by him against Forts Niagara, and Frontenac, though not exposed to great perils nor disasters, did not accomplish much. They arrived at the southern shores of Lake Ontario, at Oswego, in August. Strengthened both forts on each side of the river and built vessels. The storms in September, and the approaching winter compelled him to abandon the expedition for a season. Leaving seven hundred men to garrison the fort, the general marched back to Albany, where he arrived in October.

The expedition against Crown Point, on Lake Champlain, under William Johnson, consisted chiefly of New England militia and Indians from the Mohawk Valley. They were in immediate command of General Phineas Lyman. Among the troops were Putnam and Stark, who afterward became famous leaders in the war for independence. They built a fort on the banks of the upper Hudson, where Johnson arrived in August, and took command and named Fort Edward. With the main body of the troops Johnson marched to a beautiful body of water, about a dozen miles distant, which he named Lake George, in honor of his King. The French had now raised about sixteen hundred troops, French and Indians and were well prepared to defend Crown Point. A greater portion of these troops were placed under command of Baron Dieskau, who intended to make a swift march on Fort Edward and capture it by surprise.

The French, in ambush, surprised and defeated a detachment of troops and Indians, under Colonel Ephraim Williams, of Massachusetts, and Hendrick, the Indian chief, who had been sent to the relief of Fort Edward. Williams and Hendrick were killed, and the detachment driven back to the camp. Captain Williams, in his will, be-

queathed a modest estate which founded Williams' College, at Williamstown, Massachusetts. Baron Dieskau now attacked the camp on Lake George, but was defeated, wounded and taken prisoner. Johnson now fortified the camp and named it William Henry. On the approach of winter he garrisoned both Forts William Henry and Edward, dismissed the New England militia and retired to his home near Amsterdam, New York. This ended military operations in America in the year 1755.

The overwhelming defeat of Braddock and retreat of Dunbar was followed up in Virginia and Pennsylvania with all the horrors of Indian warfare, and the frontiers were ravaged with the most savage ferocity.

At Kittanning, thirty miles from Fort DuQuesne, was a village of Indians, whose chief was known as Captain Jacobs. The depredations of this tribe induced Governor Armstrong, of Pennsylvania to send a force of Pennsylvania volunteers, who suddenly surrounded the village at night, and, setting fire to the wigwams, almost entirely destroyed the tribe, and for a season restored peace to the frontier.

In 1756 Montcalm was sent to Canada to begin a vigorous warfare against the English, and on his first expedition he captured Fort Oswego, with 1,600 men, one hundred and twenty cannon, and all the stores. Lord Loudon, who had been appointed Governor-General of the English colonies, had previously arrived with instructions to begin immediate operations against the French, but he wasted time in superseding the officers of the colonial troops with English officers, and finally went into winter quarters without striking a blow.

In the meantime Montcalm busily prepared to capture Fort William Henry which was garrisoned by hardy American troops, among whom was the brave John Stark, husband of Molly Stark, and on the 2d of August, 1757, with 6,000 French and 2,000 Indians, Montcalm surrounded the fort and demanded its surrender. The fort, with

2,200 men, was in command of Colonel Monroe, who refused to capitulate, and at once sent to General Webb, at Fort Edward, for assistance. Webb had four thousand troops, but with cowardly caution he refused to send any of his force, and advised Monroe to surrender. Still Monroe held out bravely until his ammunition was exhausted and then accepted the honorable terms of capitulation offered by Montcalm, an important condition of which was a safe escort to Fort Edward. This Montcalm faithfully intended to furnish, but the savages in their ferocity and hope of plunder, fell upon the Americans and slaughtered a large number of them before they could reach Fort Edward. In the meantime Loudon did nothing beyond seeking a safe headquarters. This imbecility resulted by the close of 1757 in the French possessions extending over the valleys of the St. Lawrence and Mississippi until they exceeded in dimensions twenty times those of the English.

England with deep anxiety viewed the victorious growth of French power in America, and decided to take more vigorous steps to crush it out. William Pitt was made Prime Minister, and America at once became his first care. He granted many concessions to the colonial troops, and urged upon them to raise volunteers, making colonial officers of the same rank as their grade in the British army. This gave new life to the cause, and when Pitt ordered that the colonial expenses of the war should be borne by the mother country, fifty thousand soldiers were soon raised for expeditions against the French. Amherst and Wolfe were to march against Louisburg, Lord Howe and Abercrombie were to advance upon Crown Point and Ticonderoga, and Forbes was to command the expedition against Fort DuQuesne.

The expedition against Louisburg was undertaken on the 8th of June, 1758. Amherst formed his troops in line under cover of the fire of his ships, and Wolfe led the advance. After a fierce bombardment of fifty days, the fort surrendered with about 6,000 pris-

oners, and the English took possession of the whole of Cape Breton and Prince Edward's Island. They then dismantled Louisburg, and made Halifax their fortress of the northeast.

The expedition against Ticonderoga was then undertaken with an army of 7,000 English and 9,000 Americans. They embarked on Lake George in one thousand boats, but through a mistake of the guide fell into an ambushade, in which Lord Howe was killed just as the English reached the scene of action. Abercrombie unwisely ordered an attack upon the French before his artillery arrived, and Montcalm taking advantage of this, repulsed the English, with a loss to them of nearly 2,000 killed and wounded. This ended the attack upon Ticonderoga, and nothing further was done in the campaign but the capture of Fort Frontenac and some armed French vessels on Lake Ontario.

The third expedition was undertaken against Fort DuQuesne. This would have proved a failure but for the intrepid and able Washington. He advised the advance by Braddock's old route, but Forbes undertook to make a new road, during the slow progress of which three hundred of his men were ambushed and slain. The news of this disaster decided Forbes to return and abandon the expedition, but Washington, having learned from scouts of the weak condition of Fort DuQuesne was granted his urgent request to proceed alone with his Virginia troops. Arriving at the fort, Washington was gratified to find that the French, hearing of his approach, had hastily abandoned the fort and fled down the Ohio in boats, and on the 25th day of November, 1758, Washington raised the English flag over the deserted fort, and in honor of the noble Pitt, he changed the name of the settlement to Pittsburgh.

Leaving the important position in charge of a force of his brave soldiers, Washington returned to Virginia, where with great honor he was received by the people, and although but twenty-six years of age, he was elected to the House of Burgesses.

Pitt, with his statesmanlike sagacity, planned to crush out the French. His diplomacy in bearing the expenses of the colonies in the war had not only secured their earnest co-operation, but the reverses it brought the French began to incline the Indians to the winning side. Pitt recalled Abercrombie, and appointed Amherst general-in-chief of the army and governor of Virginia.

New expeditions were now planned. Wolfe was assigned to the campaign in Canada, where he was to ascend the St. Lawrence to Quebec. Amherst was to capture Ticonderoga and after advancing upon Montreal by way of Lake Champlain, and capturing that city, was to join Wolfe at Quebec. Prideaux was to march upon Niagara, and after its capture proceed to Montreal, while the country between Pittsburgh and Lake Erie was to be taken possession of by General Stanwix.

Part of these expeditions were successful. The French abandoned Ticonderoga on the approach of Amherst, but the latter general instead of marching to co-operate with Wolfe, wasted his time in fortifying the abandoned positions and left Wolfe unsupported in the work of reducing Canada. Prideaux's army captured Niagara, but he was unfortunately killed by the bursting of a gun.

The greatest undertaking of the war, however, was that of the capture of Quebec. It was a position of great strength, with the fortress of St. Louis, upon a solid rock, looming up almost perpendicular over three hundred feet above the river. Behind this stretched the lofty Plains of Abraham for miles.

The force for the attack upon Quebec was concentrated at Louisburg. It consisted of twenty-two ships of the line and as many more transports containing 8,000 men and large quantities of stores. This force arrived at the Isle of Orleans, opposite Quebec, on the 26th of June 1759, upon which the troops landed and prepared for action. To oppose this force Montcalm had a feeble army and a fortress that was deemed impregnable. The camp of the French commander was situated be-

tween the St. Charles and the Montmorenci rivers, where it was guarded by a fleet of war vessels, but the English naval supremacy was soon asserted, and after the detachment of French troops were driven from Point Levi, Wolfe erected batteries at that point and soon destroyed the lower town, but the height of the citadel and upper town prevented their bombardment. Wolfe's next movement was to cross the river for the purpose of forcing Montcalm to an engagement, but a division of the English army rashly attempted to carry the French lines by storm without waiting for their support to come up. This unfortunate attack cost the English a repulse with a loss of over four hundred men.

Wolfe was discouraged by this fatal move, as well as by the failure of Amherst to form a junction with him. At last he resolved to scale the Heights of Abraham. Deceiving the French as to his intentions by ordering soundings to be made opposite Montcalm's camp to indicate that the fleet were preparing for an attack upon his position, the troops were suddenly sent on board the ships, which sailed above the French lines as if to land. At night the army dropped down in boats to Wolfe's Cove, from whence the ascent of the heights was to be begun. So successful was this daring undertaking that the French troops on the summit were driven back, and by daylight Wolfe's army held possession of the Plains of Abraham.

Montcalm was astounded when the news was carried to him, but hastily ordering all the detachments to the front, he hastened to give battle to the English. Wolfe met the advance with great coolness, and when the French regulars were within forty yards he ordered such a deadly discharge of musketry, with grape and cannister from a few guns, that the French were driven back with great slaughter. Wolfe then decided the day by a fierce charge with bayonets. At that moment Wolfe fell mortally wounded, and in his sinking condition he exclaimed, "Support me; let not my brave fellows see me fall." While being carried to the rear he heard

the shout: "They run! they run!" "Who runs?" he asked. "The French," was the reply. Giving his last command the brave Wolfe then fell back and said, feebly, "Now, God be praised, I die happy," and with these last words he perished on the field of his triumph.

Montcalm was also mortally wounded in the fiercest of the battle, and when informed by the surgeon that he had but a few hours to live, he replied: "I am glad to hear that I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec."

In his last hours Montcalm urged his officers to concentrate their forces and attack the English before they could intrench, but the strength of the French was broken, and on September 17 Quebec was surrendered to the English. Upon this historic spot a white monumental shaft stands with the name of Montcalm generously inscribed upon it by the English, side by side with that of their hero, Wolfe.

The French concentrated all their forces at Montreal, where on September 7 of the following year Amherst marched upon them, and the French surrendered not only the city, but their entire claim upon Canada, likewise Detroit and Mackinaw.

The Cherokees and other Indians in the south now went on the warpath. After desolating the frontier for over a year, they were finally subdued, and a treaty of peace was made in June, 1761. At the treaty of peace, between France and England in February, 1763, France

ceded to England all her claimed territory east of the Mississippi River. New Orleans and the whole of Louisiana was ceded to Spain. And Spain ceded to the English East and West Florida at the same time. Now the English held possession, undisputed (excepting by the Indians) of the whole continent from the shores of the Gulf of Mexico to the Frozen Sea, and, by claimed prescriptive right, from ocean to ocean.

When, after the treaty of Paris in 1763, the tribes were informed that France had ceded the country to Great Britain, without asking their leave, there was widespread indignation amongst them. A vast confederacy was formed for the purpose of attacking all of the English forts on the same day, west of the Alleghanies.

At the head of this conspiracy was a great Ottawa chief, Pontiac, then about fifty years of age. Every post west of Oswego, excepting Niagara, Fort Pitt and Detroit, fell into the hands of the Indians. It was over a year before the power of the Indian Confederacy was broken and chiefs of the hostile tribes sued for pardon and peace. The haughty Pontiac would not yield. At last, in 1769, this powerful Indian prince, who had almost unbounded sway over thousands of square miles of territory, was slain near Cahokia. A strolling Indian was bribed by an English trader to murder him. That savage, for the gift of a barrel of rum, stole softly behind Pontiac, in the forest, and buried his hatchet in his brain.



FIFTH PERIOD

THE WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE

George the Third ascended the throne of England in October, 1760. He was born in London, in 1738. In his reign of fifty years was the period in English history most interesting to Americans. In 1761 he discarded the wise and sagacious William Pitt as his Prime Minister and chose for his counsellor and guide the Earl of Bute, with George Grenville as his chancellor of the exchequer. This was a mistake that led to lasting disasters to the realm. The unwise policy advised by Bute, concerning the English-American colonies, engendered much of the ill-feeling toward the mother country that led to a revolutionary war and the dismemberment of the British Empire.

Bute's idea concerning the American colonies was that they should be brought into absolute subjection to the British Parliament by force, if necessary, and to do this he advised the employment of measures for reforming the colonial charters.

Acting upon the advice of Bute, the king sent secret agents to travel in the colonies, to collect information about the character and temper of the people. They returned to England with reports that led to erroneous conclusions, which led to trouble. Writs or warrants were now granted to officers of the customs to empower them to call upon the people and all officers of the government in America to assist them in the collection of the revenue, and to enter stores and houses of the citizens at pleasure in pursuit of their vocation. The writs of assistance were first issued in Massachusetts. Their legality was questioned, and the matter was brought before the court in Boston in February, 1761. Among the defenders of the colonists was James Otis. He said: "A man's house is his castle; and whilst he is quiet, he is as well guarded as a prince

in his castle." This writ if it should be declared legal would totally annihilate that privilege. "I am determined," he said, "to sacrifice estate, ease, health, applause and even life to the sacred calls of my country in opposition to a kind of power the exercise of which cost our king his head and another his throne." The speech and event constitute the opening scene of resistance to British oppression. It stirred the people through all the provinces. Absolute independence was not then desired; they asked only for justice and equality and the privilege of local self-government. Otis was elected to a seat in the Massachusetts Assembly in the spring of 1761.

The subject of the right to tax the Americans, they not being represented in Parliament, had been debated in the House of Commons in March, 1763, for the first time, when it was determined in the affirmative by a unanimous vote. When the news of that debate and vote reached Massachusetts, the Assembly of that colony, then in session, immediately resolved: That the sole right of giving and granting money of the people of this province is vested in them, as the legal representatives; and that the imposition of taxes and duties by the Parliament of Great Britain upon a people who are not represented in the House of Commons is absolutely irreconcilable with their rights. *Taxation without representation is tyranny*; and upon that principle the Americans thereafter rested in opposing the taxation schemes of the mother country.

Charles Townshend, the first Lord of Trade in England, advocated the substitution of royal authority for the colonial charters and a new territorial arrangement of the provinces. He also proposed a stamp tax. At about the same time a bill was introduced in Parliament to enforce the navigation laws

which empowered every officer and seaman of the British navy to act as custom-house officers and informers, and so subjecting to seizure every American vessel on sea or in port.

In the spring of 1764, Grenville read in the House of Commons a series of resolutions declaring the intentions of the government to raise a tax in America on stamped paper. The subject excited great feelings in the colonies. In Massachusetts Samuel Adams wrote the address of the citizens of Boston to the Massachusetts legislature, in which they denied the right of Parliament to tax the colonies and looked upon the power of union for a redress of grievances. The sentiments of the colonists were: "If we are taxed without our consent, if we are not represented in the body that taxes us and we submit we are slaves." The Massachusetts Assembly had sent a circular letter to the other assemblies of the colonies on the subject of resistance to taxation. It was proposed that the colonies unite in an expression of views and present them to Parliament through their agents, that the end sought for might be obtained. So it was that petitions and remonstrances against the proposed stamp tax were soon on their way to England. That from New York was the boldest of all.

Late in October, 1764, the Pennsylvania Assembly chose Dr. Franklin, agent of that province in England. Soon after, he became a sort of national representative of the British colonial empire in America. Franklin advised the ministry in England that the stamp act was an unwise measure, and the enforcement of the act would endanger the unity of the empire.

On the assembling of Parliament in January, 1765, the king recommended the carrying out of Grenville's scheme of the stamp tax and assured them that he should use every endeavor to enforce obedience in the colonies. This act provided that every skin or piece of vellum, or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper used for legal purposes, such as bills, bonds, notes, leases, policies of insurance, marriage licenses and a great

many other documents, in order to be held valid in the courts of law was to be stamped and sold by public officers appointed for the purpose, at prices which levied a stated tax on every such document. To the odiousness of the tax itself was added the provisions of its collection by arbitrary power, under decrees of the British judges, without any trial by jury. The act was passed and the bill made a law on the 22d of March, 1765. Colonel Barrie, who had been with Wolfe in the campaign against Quebec, and who had lived in America, was a member of Parliament.

He was one of the champions of the American cause, and in a speech he made in their behalf, he spoke of the colonists as *Sons of Liberty*. This name was soon adopted and became familiar on the lips of Americans.

Everywhere in America the act was denounced, and people in villages and cities gathered in excited groups and boldly expressed their indignation. Among the foremost of those who boldly denounced the act was Patrick Henry, then about twenty-nine years of age. He had lately been elected a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses, who were in session at that time. When the news was published to that body by the speaker, a scene of wild excitement ensued. Henry wrote five resolutions, and submitted them to the House. The *first* declared that the original settlers brought with them and transmitted to their posterity all the rights enjoyed by the people of Great Britain. The *second* affirmed that these rights had been secured by two royal charters granted by King James. The *third* asserted that taxation of the people by themselves, or by persons chosen by themselves, was the distinguishing characteristics of British freedom, and without which the ancient constitution could not exist. The *fourth* maintained that the people of Virginia had always enjoyed the right of being governed by their own assembly in the article of taxes, and that this right had been constantly recognized by the king and people of Great Britain. The *fifth* resolution, in which was summed up the essentials of the

preceeding four, declared "That the General Assembly of this colony have the sole right and power to levy taxes and impositions upon the inhabitants of this colony, and that every attempt to vest such power in any other person or persons whatsoever, other than the General Assembly aforesaid, has a tendency to destroy British as well as American freedom.

After an impassioned speech by Mr. Henry, these resolutions were carried. On the next day some of those who had voted for the fifth resolution under excitement became alarmed and the House reconsidered and rejected it. In the month of June the Virginia resolves and the Massachusetts circular reached all the colonies, and everywhere they met a hearty response.

The Stamp Act was to go into effect on the first of November, 1765. Ingersoll arrived at Boston at the beginning of August, bearing commissions for stamp distributors, and on the eighth of that month their names were published. They immediately became objects of public resentment and scorn, and there was a general determination not to allow them to exercise the functions of their office. In Boston the people tore down a building which Andrew Oliver was erecting for a stamp officer, and made a bonfire of it. Believing his life in danger, Oliver resigned his office and the town was quieted. Governor Bernard, after ordering a proclamation for the discovery and arrest of the rioters, fled to a castle on an island in Boston harbor. In Providence, Rhode Island, after destroying the house and furniture of an obnoxious citizen, a mob compelled the stamp officer to resign. At New Haven, in Connecticut, Ingersoll, who had been the agent for the colony in England, was denounced as a traitor; and the fact that the initials of his name were the same as were those of Judas Iscariot was publicly pointed out, and he was compelled to promise that he would not sell stamps or stamped paper. In New York and New Jersey the stamp officers, fearing violence, resigned. At Annapolis, in Maryland, the excited populace pulled

down a house that the stamp officer was building, and the governor dared not interfere. General alarm prevailed among officers of the crown. They saw that the Americans were thoroughly aroused and very strong. In other colonies, not here named, there was equal firmness, but less violence, in preventing the sale of stamps, and when the first of November arrived, the law, so far as its enforcement was concerned, was a nullity. A convention, called the "Stamp Act Congress" assembled at New York on the seventh of October. All the colonies were represented or gave their assent to its proceedings, which embodied the principles that governed the men of the Revolution that broke out ten years after.

The Americans held in their hands a power which might compel the British Parliament to repeal the obnoxious act. The merchants and people agreed to handle nothing of British manufacture. One source of British prosperity was thus dried up. When firm but respectful appeals went to the ears of the British ministry from America, the merchants and manufacturers of England seconded them, and their potential voices were heeded.

In the summer of 1765, Grenville was succeeded by the Marquis of Rockingham, a friend of the Americans, as Premier of Great Britain in the new cabinet. Meanwhile public sentiment had been deeply stirred in England by events in America. When Parliament assembled in January, 1766, the ministry was fully alive to the necessity of prompt and vigorous action. Pitt, who was in his place in the House, in a remarkable speech proposed an absolute, total and immediate repeal of the Stamp Act, at the same time declaring the absolute sovereignty of Great Britain over the colonies. It was warmly seconded by Edmund Burke, then thirty-six years of age, and who was sitting in Parliament for the first time, in two remarkable speeches in favor of repeal. The repeal became a law on March 18th, it receiving the reluctantly given signature of the king. The repeal produced great joy in both

England and America. In London the event was celebrated by bonfires and illuminations. Equal joy was manifested in America. In Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Charleston and other places Pitt and the king and Parliament were praised and honored. In New York the Sons of Liberty, under sanction of the governor, erected a tall mast in the fields in front of Warren street, which they called a *Liberty Pole*. Statues were erected to the king and William Pitt in New York and other places in the provinces. If the British ministry had been wise, they might have easily conciliated the Americans and ushered in an era of peace and prosperity on both sides of the Atlantic. But they were not wise. Christopher Gadsden, of South Carolina, and other sagacious observers, perceived that the repeal bill was only a truce in the war upon the liberty of the Americans. The liberal press of England denounced the act, and Pitt's plea of expediency could not save him from severe censure by the Americans when they gravely considered the matter.

In the summer of 1766, the popular Rockingham ministry was dissolved, and Pitt was made Premier. He accepted a peerage from the king. After this, and during this administration of two years and four months, some of the most obnoxious acts of Parliament concerning Americans became laws.

Troops were sent to New York with power, under the law, to break into houses in search of deserters. The royal governors demanded of the Assemblies appropriations for the support of the troops. The troops were objects of intense dislike to the people, and when they cut down the Liberty Pole in New York, fearful retaliation would have followed this act had not the governor ordered the troops to refrain from further aggressive acts. This was in the spring of 1767.

In June, 1767, a bill proposed by Townshend, for levying duties on tea, glass, paper, painters' colors and other articles imported by the colonists, was adopted by Parliament. Also bills were passed for creating resident custom

officers to enforce the revenue laws and forbidding the Assembly of New York to perform any legislative act whatever, until they should support the troops. The Assembly of New York disregarded the disabling act, and the colonial assemblies of the other colonies protested against the revenue laws. They were regarded as direct blows against the liberties of the Americans, and excited almost as violent opposition as did the Stamp Act.

The prospect of disruption delighted the French ministry. The French had been shorn of a vast domain in America, the pride of that nation had been humbled by England, and there was a determination to strike a deadly retaliatory blow when opportunity should offer. Baron De Kalb, a colonel in the French Army, and afterward a general in the American Army of the Revolution, was sent as an emissary to ascertain the strength of their purpose to withdraw from Great Britain by the Americans. To find out the character of their leaders, civil and military, and their resources. The Baron's report to Choiseul, the French minister, did not warrant the hope for an immediate rupture. From that time it was the cherished policy of the French government to foster the quarrel and to give aid to the Americans whenever they should strike a blow for freedom.

The colonists were preparing to resist the taxation schemes, and the common danger had thoroughly united them. The colonial newspapers were champions of the people, and in them the principles of liberty and the rights of the colonists were ably discussed. The "Letters of a Farmer of Pennsylvania to the Inhabitants of the British Colonies," written by John Dickinson, in the fall of 1767, and published in a Philadelphia newspaper, portraying the fatal consequences to liberty in America of a supine acquiescence to ministerial measures, had an immediate and subsequent effect that was wonderful. Non-importation associations were reorganized, and that powerful machinery almost destroyed the commerce with England. Dr. Franklin caused

the letters to be republished in England, with a preface written by himself, in 1768. They were also translated into French and published in Paris.

Early in 1768, Massachusetts was looked upon by the British ministry as the focus of sedition, and consequently became the object of their suspicion and wrath. At the opening of the Assembly of that province, resolutions were passed opposing a standing army in America, objecting to the establishing of commissioners of customs, expressing alarm because of the attempt to annihilate the legislative authority of New York, and declared the intention of Massachusetts to defend its rights. From the pen of Samuel Adams letters were sent to distinguished men in England, and a petition to the King, in which the principles of the sacred right of being taxed by only representatives of their own free election was laid down. A letter, also written by Samuel Adams, was sent to the other colonial assemblies, inviting them to join Massachusetts in "maintaining the liberties of America." Responses now came to Boston from the other assemblies, expressing cordial approbation of its sentiments. The British ministry instructed the royal governors to dissolve any assembly that gave "any countenance to the seditious papers," but this only increased the zeal in the assemblies in the cause in which Massachusetts was leading. Orders were issued to General Gage at New York to hold a regiment in readiness to go to Boston. The admiralty was also directed to send a frigate and four smaller vessels of war to Boston harbor, and directions were given to repair Castle William. This measure was regarded by Americans as a virtual declaration of war.

New England men were impressed into the British naval service, and in June the sloop *Liberty*, belonging to John Hancock, was seized for evading the obnoxious revenue laws. These acts created the wildest excitement in Boston and vicinity. A great meeting of the people was held in Fan-

euil Hall on the thirteenth of June, 1768, at which the people plainly told the crown that its oppressions must cease. So was consecrated Faneuil Hall as *The Cradle of Liberty*.

A royal order was sent by Lord Hillsborough, Secretary of State for the colonies, late in April, 1768, requiring the American Assemblies to treat the Circular Letter of the Massachusetts Legislature with contempt. It threatened them with dissolution in case they refused compliance. That order was properly regarded as a direct attempt to abridge or control free discussion in the colonies, and was more potential in creating a permanent union in the colonies than any event in their past history. Franklin, in England, writing to his son concerning a professed colonial office, said: "I apprehend a breach between the two countries." The Colonial Assemblies everywhere took decided action and exhibited remarkable unanimity of sentiment. In the face of the warnings of the royal governor, that their action tended to independence and would bring ruin to America, they approved the Massachusetts Circular and rejected the royal order. Their dissolution followed. At the beginning of 1769 there was a perfect union of the thirteen colonies.

When the news of these events in Massachusetts reached England, in the summer of 1768, Parliament denounced the proceedings and proposed to transport Otis, Hancock, the Adamses and other leaders to England for trial and punishment. During this time Governor Bernard, of Massachusetts, was the chief source of information to the English ministry. While he pretended to be a friend of the colonists, he, at the same time was greatly exaggerating every movement there to the ministry in England. By this means he hoped to keep the people quiet until he could induce the ministry to send troops and warships to Boston to overawe the people and make his own seat more secure. This duplicity was known to the citizens of Boston. Satisfied that the troops would come sooner or later, nearly all the merchants of Boston, in

August, 1768, subscribed to a non-importation league, to go into operation on the January following. By this powerful influence on the British merchants, they hoped to restrain the hand of the government.

The people were now thoroughly alive to a sense of their dangers and duties. The other colonies were watching Massachusetts. When the Virginia Assembly was dissolved, it reorganized in a private house and then adopted a non-importation agreement presented by George Washington.

While the people of Massachusetts were preparing to fight for their liberties, if necessary, those in North Carolina, far away from the seaboard, were in open insurrection because of the cruelty of oppressors. Governor Tryon, who was sent to rule North Carolina in 1765, attempted to suppress free speech on the great question of the stamp tax. He found he had an obstinate people to deal with. He tried to compel the people to take the stamps, but they compelled the stamp officer to publicly resign his commission. The governor, now alarmed, tried to conciliate the militia, but was not successful. The rapacity of the public officers in the province, from the governor down, drove the people to the verge of rebellion. They resolved to form a league for mutual protection and to take all the power in certain inland counties into their own hands. At an assembly held on the banks of the Eno, not far from Hillsborough, it was resolved that the people in the more inland counties should regulate public affairs there, and they almost declared themselves independent of all external authority. From that time they were called *Regulators*, and were a prominent and powerful body. For several years the Regulators resisted oppression with all their might. Anarchy prevailed in the discontented regions, and sheriffs dared not exercise their official functions. Judges were driven from the bench and general lawlessness was observed. Governor Tryon, with some militia in April, 1771, in a conflict with these regulators, defeated them, and

compelled the people in all that region—conscientious people—to take an oath of allegiance, which restrained their patriotic action when the war of the Revolution was earnestly begun. This was the *first battle in the war for independence*. It was a sort of civil war, for it was fought on the soil of North Carolina, between citizens of North Carolina. The movement of the Regulators was a powerful beginning of that system of resistance which marked the people of North Carolina in the impending struggle.

Governor Bernard had assured the Massachusetts Convention of his displeasure and his intention to enforce the laws. On the first of October, 1768, eight vessels of war, bearing two regiments of British soldiers, commanded by Colonels Dalrymple and Carr, appeared off Boston harbor. They were landed in the built-up portion of the city. Natural hatred of the troops by the people, deep and abiding, was soon engendered, and the terms rebel and tyrant were frequently bandied between them. Lord North now commenced the leadership of the ministry in England, which continued until nearly the close of our struggle for independence. About this time Bernard was recalled, and the province was left in the care of Lieutenant-Governor Thomas Hutchinson.

The merchants of New York, Philadelphia, Annapolis and other places had now renewed their non-importation leagues with vigor. The distress created by these leagues to British commerce and manufactures caused the English merchants to urge on Parliament the repeal of the taxes on the American colonies. Lord North, who was the echo of the monarch, insisted that one tax must always be laid to keep up that right. A circular letter was then sent to all the colonies, in which a promise was given that no more taxes should be laid upon them and all duties repealed except that upon tea. It was believed that this concession would satisfy the Americans, forgetting that a principle broader and deeper and more vital than any statute

law was at the bottom of the discontent in the colonies. This circular had not the least effect on the colonies, except to stimulate them to more determined resistance. For so long as the duty on tea was retained, the principle involved remained the same.

The troops in Boston were a constant source of irritation to the citizens, who wanted them removed outside the city. Early in January, 1770, there had been serious trouble between the citizens and soldiers in New York, and intense excitement prevailed there. On the second of March, in Boston, a soldier and a workman in a rope walk had an altercation, in which the soldier was severely beaten. Full of wrath, he hastened to the barracks and soon returned with several companions, when they beat the rope makers and chased them through the streets. The citizens naturally espoused the cause of the rope makers, and many of them assembled in the afternoon with a determination to avenge the wrongs of the workman. The disturbance was settled for a time by the authorities, but vengeance only slumbered. On the evening of the fifth of March, a large number of citizens and soldiers, armed with clubs, etc., became involved in an altercation, which culminated in the soldiers obtaining their arms and firing on the citizens. Three of the populace were killed, five were severely wounded, and three were slightly hurt. Colonel Dalrymple, with the lieutenant-governor, were soon on the spot and promised the orderly citizens who had taken the place of the dispersed mob that justice should be vindicated in the morning. Such is the sad story of the famous "Boston Massacre," gleaned from conflicting evidence of witnesses at the time.

The event produced a profound impression everywhere. The cause of Boston became the cause of the continent. The story, embellished in its course from lip to lip, became a tale of horrors, that stirred the blood of patriots everywhere. It was a crisis in the history of the colonies. Some were disposed to consider the events on that night as forming the principal cause

of the Revolution, which soon afterward broke out. Soon after the massacre it was deemed expedient to remove the troops to quiet the excited feelings of the people.

On the twelfth of April, Lord North succeeded in obtaining from Parliament a repeal of all duties, except a three per cent. tax on tea. Had the news of the troubles in Boston reached Parliament at this time, there is no doubt that duty would not have been retained.

During the next two years after the Boston Massacre, the colonists were not disturbed by any obnoxious legislation by Parliament. At that period a spirit of adventure caused many persons to climb over the mountains west of the British-American colonies to explore the valleys of the Ohio, Cumberland and Tennessee Rivers, and to penetrate the dark forests in the more southern portions of the Mississippi Valley. Washington then made himself thoroughly acquainted with the region of West Virginia, on the borders of the Ohio River. Daniel Boone and companions from the Clinch and Holston Rivers were traversing the wilds of Kentucky and preparing the way for settlements there; and James Robertson and others were exploring the borders of the sinuous Cumberland and planting a permanent settlement on the bluffs of Nashville. So these pioneers were revolutionizing that vast and rich country into which an industrious population soon flowed and made permanent habitations.

In 1772, Parliament, by a special act for strengthening the powers of the royal governors in America, excited the indignation of the colonists. It provided for the payment of the salaries of the governors and judges independent of the colonial assemblies. They knew the significance of the act and denounced it as a violation of their charters. At a town-meeting in Boston, a large committee was appointed, which drew up and published a statement of all the rights and grievances of the colonies. It was the boldest and most complete the colonies had yet put

forth. Dr. Franklin, who had been appointed agent for Massachusetts in England, published it there, with a preface written by himself. It produced a deep impression on both sides of the Atlantic.

In the summer of 1772 an occurrence in Narraganset Bay made a great stir in the colonies and Great Britain. The commissioners of customs, at Boston, sent the *Gasper*, a British armed schooner, into the bay to enforce the revenue laws and prevent illicit traffic. Lieut. Duddingston, the commander, played the petty tyrant and obstructed legitimate commerce. A message was sent by Governor Wanton to him, asking him to produce his commission without delay. He refused to comply. This demand was repeated in a second letter without result. Admiral Montagu, at Boston, to whom these letters had been sent by the lieutenant, wrote a letter to the governor, saying: "The lieutenant, Sir, has done his duty. I shall give the King's officers directions that they send every man molesting them to me. As sure as the people of Newport attempt to rescue any vessel, and any of them are taken, I will hang them as pirates."

Duddingston now became more insolent and annoying. On the ninth of June, 1772, the *Gasper*, in pursuit of a vessel that had refused to salute her, was misled and hopelessly stranded. That night armed men in boats attacked the schooner, wounded the lieutenant, carried off the crew, and the vessel was set on fire, and at early dawn she was blown up by her ignited magazine. This high-handed outrage was condemned by the local authorities in public. The perpetrators of this outrage were not known until after the war with Great Britain had actually begun, although the governor and the British government offered large rewards to discover their names.

At the beginning of 1773, the East India Company found itself greatly embarrassed by the American non-importation agreements concerning tea. On appealing to the ministry, leave was granted to the company to send tea to

America on their own account, without paying an export duty, and so enable the colonists to buy it cheaper from England than from any other market. The company received the proper license in August, and although warned by Franklin and others that the Americans would not accept the new arrangement, ships were filled with cargoes of tea for American ports. Agents were appointed at all the seaports to receive it, and relief for the embarrassed company seemed to be nigh.

The colonists accepted the issue. They met the commercial question with one of deeper significance than that of the dearness or cheapness of a commodity. Is there a duty for revenue imposed on tea? was the true question. It was answered in the affirmative, and it was resolved that tea, whatever its price, should not be landed in America until that duty was taken off.

Meetings of the colonists were held in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Charleston and other places, in which it was resolved not to receive any of the cargoes. The captain of a ship which had arrived at New York, perceiving how strong were the sentiments of the people, returned to England with his vessel. The same occurrence happened at Philadelphia. At Boston, yet the focus of resistance to British oppression, the greatest demonstrations concerning tea ships occurred. It was resolved to resist the landing of any cargoes of tea at all hazards. A committee called upon the consigners with a request that they should resign. Their answer was: "It is out of our power to comply with the request of the town."

On Monday morning, the twenty-ninth of November, 1773, a great meeting was held at Faneuil Hall, at which it was resolved, by unanimous vote, to prevent the landing of a cargo of tea that had arrived the day before in a vessel anchored off the fort in the harbor. It was also resolved that no duty be paid, and that the captain be instructed to return with his ship and cargo to London.

The governor would not allow this, and ordered two armed ships to be

placed at the entrance of Boston harbor, to prevent the egress of vessels, and he directed the commander of the fort not to allow any vessel to pass out from the range of his great guns without a permit signed by himself.

In the meantime the vessel had been brought into the harbor and anchored at Griffin's wharf. At a great meeting, held on the sixteenth of December, 1773, of over seven thousand people, Mr. Rotch, the captain of the vessel, was sent to the governor to ask him for a permit to depart. On his return, several hours afterward, he reported that the governor peremptorily refused him permission to send his vessel to sea before the tea should be landed. A murmur ran through the vast assemblage, but the rising excitement was hushed into silence when Samuel Adams arose, and in a clear voice said: "This meeting can do no more to save the country." At that moment a person with painted face and dressed like an Indian gave a war-whoop, another voice shouted: "Boston harbor a teapot to-night! Hurrah for Griffin's wharf!" The meeting instantly adjourned, and the people rushed for the street, and pushed toward Griffin's wharf, followed by a number of men disguised as Indians. The populace cheered. Guards were posted to keep order. Among them was John Hancock. The disguised men and others went on board the teaships moored at Griffin's wharf, and in the course of three hours they emptied three hundred and forty-two chests of tea into the water of the harbor. The operation was performed in the presence of a multitude, who were silent spectators of the scene. It was done at an early hour in the evening—a bright, cold, moon-lit evening—and of sixty men who went on board the teaships, only a part of them were disguised as "Mohawks." It was not a mob that destroyed the tea, but sober citizens. It was the work of patriotic men, encouraged by patriotic citizens, who were determined not to be trifled with any longer. Of the immediate actors on board the teaships on that eventful

night, the names of fifty-nine are known. The last survivor of the band was David Kinnison, who died in Chicago in 1851, at the age of one hundred and fifteen years. The audacity and firmness of the Bostonians was applauded throughout the colonies. Even in Canada and the West Indies there were but feeble voices of censure.

When the news of the "Boston Tea Party" reached England in January, 1774, the Parliament assured the King that he should be sustained in efforts to maintain order in America. Lord North succeeded, in March, in having the famous "Boston Port Bill" passed by an almost unanimous vote. It provided for the removal of the custom-house, courts of justice and government offices of all kinds from Boston to Salem, and forbade every kind of shipping business in the harbor of Boston. This was followed by another bill, in which the crown appointed the governor's council and the judges of the supreme court; for the selection of jurors by the sheriff, the nomination of all other executive, military and judicial officers by the governor without consulting his council, and for prohibiting town-meetings, except for elections. A third bill provided for trial in England of all persons charged in the colonies with murders committed in support of the government. A fourth bill provided for the quartering of troops in America.

In order to secure the loyalty of the French in Canada, who were nearly all Roman Catholics, a bill was passed granting to them the "free exercise of the religion of the Church of Rome, and confirmed to the clergy of that church their accustomed dues and rights." This act was inconsistent, as the Roman Catholic religion had no legal existence in Ireland. The Quebec Act, so called, was passed, so that the English government could more easily send instruments to enslave the English-American colonies from the River St. Lawrence.

Dr. Franklin, who was agent for the colonies in England, about this time incurred the displeasure of the ministry. The government in England was deter-

mined to fill the postoffices in America with friends of the crown, so as to watch and obstruct the communications between the political leaders in the several colonies. They seized on this excuse and dismissed him from the office of deputy postmaster-general. Dr. Franklin wrote of this to his friends in the colonies, in which he states: "It may be worth your consideration, especially as the postoffice act of Parliament allows the postmaster to open letters, if warranted to do so by the order of a secretary of state, and every provincial secretary may be deemed a secretary of state in his own province." How safe the correspondence of your Assembly committees along the continent will be through the hands of crown officers?

Governor Hutchinson, of Massachusetts, was recalled in May, 1774. He had many political, as well as personal friends in Massachusetts, for it must be remembered that the patriotic zeal which animated the Sons of Liberty was not universally felt, even in Boston. When he was about to depart for England, more than a hundred merchants in Boston, and a number of lawyers, magistrates and men of property there and in the neighborhood signed an address to him, in which they expressed an entire approbation of his public acts and affectionate wishes for his personal happiness. These people became objects of intense dislike. Many of them were compelled to leave the colony, and became the first of the host of "Loyal Refugees" who peopled British provinces after the war that ensued.

It was the tenth of May when the "Port Bill" reached Boston. It was already in the hands of the Sons of Liberty in New York. They held a meeting and resolved that the only safeguard for the freedom of the colonies was in a General Congress of deputies. They also resolved to stand by Boston in its hour of distress. The suggestion was echoed back with approval from every colony. *So originated the famous First Continental Congress in 1774.*

General Gage arrived in Boston on the seventeenth of May. On the first

of June the port was closed and the law was vigorously enforced. Not a vessel of any kind was allowed to be used in the harbor. Business of every kind was immediately paralyzed. A cordon of vessels-of-war enclosed the town, and several regiments, that soon arrived, made Boston an immense garrison. There was soon produced widespread suffering, and the sympathy of the people everywhere was warmly excited. Very soon money, grain, flour and live stock were on their way toward Boston, accompanied by letters of condolence.

The Carolinas and Georgia sent rice, and the more northerly colonies sent grain, sheep and beeves, with money. The City of London, in its corporate capacity, sent three-quarters of a million dollars for the relief of the poor of Boston. The people of Marblehead and Salem offered the free use of their wharves and stores to the Boston merchants, for they scorned to profit by the misfortunes of their neighbors.

When the Massachusetts Assembly met on the seventh of June, there was a very full attendance. A large majority of the members were republicans. Governor Gage commanded the Assembly to dissolve, but before doing so, they adopted a "Solemn League and Covenant" concerning non-importations, and agreeing with New York in the proposition for a General Congress, they appointed James Bowdoin, Samuel Adams, John Adams, Thomas Cushing and Robert Treat Paine to represent Massachusetts in the proposed General Congress. They named Philadelphia as the place, and the beginning of September next ensuing as the time; and in a circular which they sent to the other colonies, the time and place were mentioned. So ended the last Assembly of Massachusetts under a royal governor.

On the same day an immense town-meeting, presided over by John Adams, was held in Faneuil Hall. The inhabitants, by vote, refused to make any provisions for paying the East India Company for its tea destroyed. They ratified the acts of the Assembly and assumed an absolutely defiant attitude.

The proposition for a General Congress, to be held in September, in Philadelphia, received universal assent, and before the close of the summer of 1774, twelve of the thirteen British-American colonies had chosen delegates to attend it. Only Georgia remained silent.

During the summer and autumn of 1774 the people, everywhere, were preparing for impending war. They armed themselves and practiced military tactics every day. Men of all stations in life might be found in the ranks for discipline. At the close of the Congress at Philadelphia, late in the autumn, the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts voted to enroll twelve thousand of these patriots under the general title of Minute Men—volunteers who would be ready at a minute's warning to take the field with arms in their hands. All New England did likewise, and the example was contagious. Other colonies followed, and in Virginia the Minute Men were of special service to the patriot cause at a critical juncture.

Gage, in August, proceeded to form a council, under the act of Parliament. The popular indignation was so great that twenty of them resigned and the remainder sought protection under the troops in Boston. Gage now moved his seat of government to Boston and prepared to cast up fortifications across the "Neck." At about the same time, he sent out troops to seize gunpowder belonging to the province at Charlestown and Cambridge. This was followed, a few days afterward, by a rumor that went over the land, even to the Connecticut River and beyond, that war had begun in Boston; that the British ships were bombarding the town, and that the British troops were murdering the patriotic inhabitants. The Minute Men everywhere seized their arms and marched in squads to Boston. This host of fully thirty thousand men, intent upon the salvation of their brethren, and the destruction of the enemy, were not halted until they were satisfied that the story was untrue.

On the sixth of September, 1774, a convention of delegates representing the towns in the county to which Boston

belonged, in a resolution frankly told Gage that they would not submit to any of the late acts of Parliament concerning the Americans. They resolved that they would not commence war, but act on the defensive only, so long as just reason required. Gage denounced the convention as treasonable, and he declared that he would adopt such measures as he pleased to protect his troops.

On the fifth of September, 1774, delegates from twelve British-American provinces met in Carpenters' Hall, in Philadelphia, and were organized into what they called themselves, a *Continental Congress*, having for their object the consideration of the political state of the colonies, also the devising of measures for obtaining relief from oppression and to unite in efforts to secure forever for themselves and their posterity the free enjoyment of natural and chartered rights and liberties, in a perfect union with Great Britain. Very few of them had aspirations yet for political independence. There were present forty-four delegates. These were John Sullivan and Nathaniel Folsom, from *New Hampshire*; Thomas Cushing, Samuel Adams, John Adams and Robert Treat Paine, from *Massachusetts*; Stephen Hopkins and Samuel Ward, from *Rhode Island*; Eliphalet Dyer, Roger Sherman and Silas Deane, from *Connecticut*; James Duane, John Jay, Philip Livingston, Isaac Low and William Floyd, from *New York*; James Kinsey, William Livingston, John Hart, Stephen Crane and Richard Smith, from *New Jersey*; Joseph Galloway, Samuel Rhodes, Thomas Mifflin, Charles Humphreys, John Morton and Edward Biddle, from *Pennsylvania*; Cæsar Rodney, Thomas McKean and George Read, from *Delaware*; Robert Goldsborough, William Paca and Samuel Chase, from *Maryland*; Peyton Randolph, George Washington, Patrick Henry, Richard Bland, Benjamin Harrison and Edmund Pendleton, from *Virginia*, and Henry Middleton, John Rutledge, Christopher Gadsden, Thomas Lynch and Edward Rutledge, from *South Carolina*. Others came soon afterward: John Alsop

and Henry Wisner, from *New York*; George Ross and John Dickinson, from *Pennsylvania*; Thomas Johnson and Matthew Tighman, from *Maryland*; Richard Henry Lee, from *Virginia*; William Hooper, Joseph Hewes and Richard Caswell, from *North Carolina*—making the whole number fifty-four. Peyton Randolph, of *Virginia*, was chosen president, and Charles Thomson, a native of Ireland, who, in early life, had emigrated to Delaware, and then a citizen of Philadelphia, was chosen secretary.

Patrick Henry, of *Virginia*, opened the Congress in an eloquent speech, in which he said: "British oppression has effaced the boundaries of the several colonies. *I am not a Virginian, but an American.* This was the test of every patriotic discourse thereafter. On the eighth of October it was passed: "That this Congress approve the opposition of the inhabitants of Massachusetts Bay to the execution of the late acts of Parliament; and if the same shall be attempted to be carried into execution by force, in such case all America ought to support them in their opposition. From that hour the crystallization of the British-American colonies into an independent nation went rapidly on.

After addressing letters, written by John Jay, to the people of Great Britain, and making a petition to the King, drawn by John Dickinson, in which the final decision of the colonies was given in conciliatory terms, and an elaborate Address to the Inhabitants of the Province of Quebec, also written by Mr. Dickinson, were agreed to, the First Continental Congress ended. This was on the twenty-sixth of October, 1774. A few days before, the Congress had recommended the holding of another at Philadelphia on the tenth of May following, if the grievances were not redressed in the meantime. In January, 1775, the British King and his counsellors, instructed the royal governors to prevent the meeting of the delegates in the following May.

At Annapolis, in Maryland, long after the excitement occasioned by the

destruction of tea in Boston harbor had subsided, a ship sailed into that port on the 15th of October from London, owned by Anthony Stewart of Annapolis. Among her cargo was seventeen packages of tea. The people at a mass meeting resolved that the tea should not be landed, and that the ship and cargo should be burned. Charles Carroll, of Carrollton, advised Mr. Stewart for the security of his own personal safety, and that of the town, to burn his vessel with his own hands before the next gathering of the people. Stewart consented to do so. He caused the ship to be run aground and set on fire in the presence of a multitude of people. This was the last attempt to import tea during the colonial rule.

Gage had summoned the Assembly of Massachusetts to meet on the 5th of October, but the aspect of the delegates was so seditious that he countermanded his order. The members denied his right to countermand and organized themselves into a Provincial Congress, with John Hancock as President and Benjamin Lincoln, Secretary. They called out the militia of the province and appropriated sixty thousand dollars to procure ammunition and military stores. At the same time expressed their loyalty to the King, and protested against the fortifications around Boston. Gage denounced the Convention as an illegal body, and warned them to desist from further action. That Provincial Congress assumed legislative and executive powers, and received the allegiance of the people generally, and authorized the enrollment of twelve thousand Minute-men. At the close of 1774, Gage found himself unsupported excepting by his troops, a few government officials in Boston and passive loyalists who were under the protection of his regiments. All outside of Boston wore the aspect of rebellion.

During this time there was a speck of war with the Indians on the frontiers of Virginia. By the Quebec Act, all of the country north and west of the Ohio River was included in that prov-

ince. In this territory there was no government to restrain the actions of Christians or Pagans. Governor Dunmore, of Virginia, disregarded the Quebec Act and continued to grant lands to settlers in the Scioto Valley. He asserted jurisdiction over Pittsburgh and the surrounding country to the westward, and this territory was rapidly filling up with settlers from Virginia and Maryland. Early in 1774 the Indians committed many murders and depredations along the Ohio borders, and the tribes seemed to be in preparation for war. They were led by Logan, a Mingo chief, who in revenge for the cold-blooded murder of his mother, brother and sister, who was the wife of one of the white traders, during that following summer exacted fearful retribution. Governor Dunmore, now renewed a treaty of peace with the Six Nations and fitted out an expedition against the hostile Indians. In October, at Point Pleasant, near the junction of the Great Kanawha and Ohio Rivers, a battle was fought with the Indians with large losses on both sides. A few days afterward a satisfactory treaty of peace was concluded, and then the Virginians returned to their homes, from which they had been absent about three months. The troops, when they received the news of public affairs, during their absence, resolved to exert every power in defence of American liberty.

The elections for members of Parliament in the autumn of 1774 satisfied the ministry that they were strong in the affections of the people. This pleased the King, and the government was not in a frame of mind to receive with complacency the state papers put forth by the Continental Congress, especially the petition to the King. The New England governments are now in a state of rebellion. Blows must decide whether they are to be subject to this country, or to be independent. This was King George's ultimatum, to which he obstinately adhered.

Dr. Franklin, at this time in England, intimated that peace could be estab-

lished with the American Colonies by allowing them the right and privileges claimed as the birthright of English subjects in England. Dr. Franklin returned to America in the spring of 1775, abandoning any hope of reconciliation, and entered vigorously upon the prosecution of the war, which soon after broke out.

In the early part of 1775 the British government had proclaimed Massachusetts to be in a state of rebellion, and provided means for suppressing that rebellion by force of arms. For ten years the people of those provinces had pleaded, remonstrated and worked in vain endeavors to obtain justice for themselves and their posterity. They had asserted the inalienable rights of every free-born Englishman, and had been haughtily spurned as slaves. They had bravely, meekly, patiently and persistently opposed the revolution which the king and Parliament seemed determined to effect (and did effect) by overturning the colonial charters and denying to British subjects in America the freedom and privileges of British subjects in England.

The colonists now said: "We must fight." They repeated it from Maine to Georgia. They buckled on their armor and stood on the defensive determined not to give the first blow. We shall now see how their oppressors became the aggressors, and spilled the first blood that flowed in the war of that momentous revolution which King George the Third began. That revolution, as we have observed, was not the work of the people here. They did not seek to overturn anything; they sought only to preserve the precious things that existed. They had never known hereditary titles, nor prerogatives, nor any of the forms of feudalism, in America, other than as temporary exotics. They had grown to greatness in plain, unostentatious ways, chiefly as tillers of the soil and moving on a social plane of almost absolute equality. They had all been born free. They were not called upon to fight for freedom, for they already possessed it; they were compelled

to fight for its maintenance. Therefore, the American people in 1775 were not revolutionists.

In February, 1775, Great Britain, as we have seen, had virtually declared war against the colonies. "The time for reconciliation, moderation, and reasoning is over," General Gage wrote to Lord Dartmouth.

In reply to a letter from Dartmouth, ordering him to assert, by force, the absolute authority of the king, Gage wrote that the civil government was nearly at an end in Massachusetts. He advised the sending of twenty thousand troops, with whom he would undertake to enforce the new form of government, to disarm the colonists, and to arrest and send to England for trial the chief traitors in Massachusetts. Meanwhile the British government were preparing to reinforce the troops in Boston. It was determined to make the number there ten thousand. They also resolved to send another general to take the place of Gage, whom ministers considered too inefficient for the exigency. General William Howe was chosen to succeed him. His major-generals were Sir Henry Clinton and John Burgoyne. General Howe took the appointment with reluctance. "Is it a proposition or an order from the king?" Howe asked. "It is an order." "Then it is my duty to obey," he said, with real reluctance, for he remembered with gratitude the vote of Massachusetts to erect a monument in memory of his brother, Lord Howe, who was killed near Ticonderoga. His reluctance was somewhat diminished when he was told that he and his brother Richard Earl Howe (who had been appointed naval commander in America), would go as peace commissioners also, bearing the sword in one hand and the olive branch in the other.

Franklin, not long before his departure from England, had written to friends in Massachusetts, saying, in substance, "Do not begin war without the advice of the Continental Congress, unless on a sudden emergency." He said: "New England alone can hold out

for ages against this country, and, if they are firm and united, in seven years will win the day." The prophecy was fulfilled in time and facts. The French minister in London wrote to his government: "Every negotiation which shall proceed from the present administration will be without success in the colonies." The conduct of the Americans gratified the wishes of Franklin and the hopes of the French ambassador.

When news of the contemptuous reception of the petition of Congress to the king, and copies of the Address of Parliament to his majesty, reached the Americans, there was an outburst of patriotism from the hearts of all the colonies. The spirit of the times gave fire to the tongue of Joseph Warren, when, on the anniversary of the Boston Massacre, he thrilled the souls of a vast concourse of citizens in the Old South Meeting-house.

All through March and far into April Boston was like a seething cauldron of intense feeling. Gage was irresolute and timid. He had about four thousand well-drilled soldiers, eager to fall upon the "rebels," yet he hesitated. At length he resolved to nip rebellion in the bud. He prepared to seize John Hancock and Samuel Adams as arch-traitors, and send them to England for trial on a charge of treason.

In the meantime Hancock and Adams, who were in attendance at the Provincial Congress held at Concord, had received warning of their personal danger, for an intercepted letter from London had revealed it; and when that Congress adjourned on the 15th of April, they tarried at Lexington, where they lodged at the house of Rev. Jonas Clarke. At the same time the Minutemen were on the alert everywhere, and the fifteen thousand troops which the Provincial Congress had called for were in readiness to confront the oppressors of the people.

The capital part of the scheme was to arrest Hancock and Adams at Lexington, ten miles from Boston. For this purpose the soldiers who were to do the work, were to leave Boston secretly

in the evening, at an hour that would enable them to reach Lexington at past midnight, when the doomed patriots would be sleeping soundly. Their arrest accomplished, the troops were to move rapidly forward to Concord, six miles further, and seize or destroy the cannon and military stores which the patriots had gathered. Preparations for the expedition were made as early as the fifteenth. On that day about eight hundred grenadiers and infantry were detached from the main body and marched to a different part of the town, under the pretense of teaching them some new military movements. At night boats from the transports, which had been hauled up for repairs, were launched and moored under the sterns of the men-of-war. Dr. Warren, one of the most watchful of the patriots, sent notice to Hancock of these suspicious movements, and enabled the Committee of Safety, of which the latter was chairman, to cause some of the stores at Concord to be removed to places of safety, in time to save them from the invaders.

In the afternoon of the 18th (April, 1775), Gage's secret leaked out, and the patriots in Boston watched every movement of the troops with keen vision. Dr. Warren, Paul Revere and others made arrangements for a sudden emergency, to warn Hancock and Adams of danger, and to arouse the country. Their precautions were timely, for at ten o'clock that evening, eight hundred British troops marched silently to the foot of the Common, where they embarked in boats and passed over to Cambridge. They were commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel Smith, assisted by Major Pitcairn. Revere had engaged his friend Newman, sexton of the North Church, to give him a timely signal.

The moon was just rising when the British landed on the Cambridge side of the water. Newman had hung out two lanterns, and the watching Revere, springing into a saddle on the back of a fleet horse, hurried across Charlestown Neck. At the end of the isthmus he was confronted by two British

soldiers, who attempted to arrest him. Turning back toward Charlestown, he soon reached the Medford road and escaped; and at a little past midnight he rode up to Clarke's house in Lexington.

The story of impending peril was soon told, and the whole household was astir. William Dawes, who went by Roxbury, soon afterward arrived. After refreshing themselves, he and Revere rode swiftly toward Concord, arousing the inhabitants by the way, as the latter had done between Medford and Lexington. They were overtaken by Dr. Samuel Prescott, who had been wooing a young woman in Lexington, and he joined them in their patriotic errand, when Revere, who was riding ahead, was suddenly surrounded by some British officers, and with Dawes was made a prisoner. Prescott dashed over a stone wall with his active horse and escaped. He rode over to Concord, and at about two o'clock in the morning of the 19th gave the alarm. Revere and his fellow-prisoner were closely questioned concerning Hancock and Adams, but gave evasive answers. They were threatened with pistol-balls, when Revere told his captors that men were out arousing the country in all directions. Just then a church bell was heard; then another, when one of the Lexington prisoners said: "The bells are ringing—the town is alarmed—you are dead men. The frightened officers left their prisoners and fled toward Boston.

The alarm rapidly spread, and the Minute-men seized their arms. At two o'clock in the morning, Captain John Parker called the roll of his company on Lexington Green in front of the meeting-house, and ordered them to charge their guns with powder and ball. Colonel Smith was convinced that their secret was known and there was a general uprising of the people, for church bells were heard in various directions. He sent back to Boston for reinforcements, and ordered Major Pitcairn to push rapidly on through Lexington and seize the bridges at Concord. As the latter advanced, he secured

every man seen on the way. One of these escaped, and mounting a fleet-footed horse, hurried to Lexington and gave the alarm, but not until the invaders were within less than two miles of the village green. The bells rang out an alarm. The Minute-men came; and just at the earliest dawn of day Captain Parker found himself at the head of almost seventy men.

In the gray of the early morning, Major Pitcairn and his scarlet-clad soldiers appeared, and halting not far from the line of Minute-men on Lexington Common, loaded their muskets. The patriots stood firm. They had been ordered not to fire a shot until they were assailed by the invaders. A pause ensued, when Pitcairn and other officers galloped forward, waving their swords over their heads, and followed by the shouting troops in double-quick time. "Disperse, you villains! Lay down your arms! Why don't you disperse, you rebels? Disperse!" cried the major. In rushing forward the troops had become confused. As the Minute-men did not immediately obey the command to lay down their arms, Pitcairn wheeled his horse, and waving his sword, shouted: "Press forward, men! surround the rascals!" At the same moment some random shots were fired over the heads of the Americans by the British soldiers, but without effect. The Minute-men had scruples about firing, until their own blood had been spilled. Pitcairn was irritated by their obstinacy, and drawing his pistol, discharged it, at the same moment shouting *fire!* A volley from the front rank followed the order, with fatal effect. Some Americans fell dead or mortally wounded, and others were badly hurt. There was no longer hesitation on the part of the Minute-men. The conditions of their restraint were fulfilled. The blood of their comrades had been shed; and as the shrill fife of young Jonathan Harrington set the drum beating, the patriots returned the fire with spirit, but not with fatal effect. The blood of American citizens stained the green grass on Lexington Common, but no British soldier lost his life in

that memorable conflict. Captain Parker, perceiving his little band in danger of being surrounded by overwhelming numbers and massacred, ordered his men to disperse. They did so; but as the British continued to fire, the American returned the shots with spirit, and then sought safety behind stone walls and buildings. Four of the Minute-men were slain by the first fire, and four afterwards, and ten were wounded. Only three of the British were wounded, with Pitcairn's horse.

So ended the opening act in the great drama of the Old War for Independence.

Meanwhile the news of the skirmish was spreading with great rapidity over the province. Before noon that day the tidings reached Worcester, thirty miles from Lexington. As the news spread, the implements of husbandry were thrown by in the fields, and the citizens left their homes with no longer delay than to seize their arms. In a short time the Minute-men were paraded on the Green, under Captain Timothy Bigelow; after fervent prayer by Rev. Mr. McCarty, they took up their line of march. They were soon followed by as many of the train-bands as could be gathered under Captain Benjamin Flagg.

The scene at Worcester on that occasion was a type of a hundred others enacted within twenty-four hours after the skirmish at Lexington. It affords a vivid picture of the spirit of the people.

The serious question arose, Who fired *first* at Lexington, the British or the Provincials? Upon the true solution of that question depended, in a degree, the justification or condemnation of the belligerent parties, for the Americans had resolved not to be the aggressors. So late as May the next year, a London journal said: "It is whispered that the ministry are endeavoring to fix a certainty which party fired first at Lexington, before hostilities commenced, as the Congress declare, if it can be proved that American blood was first shed, it will go a great way toward effecting a reconciliation on

the most honorable terms." The testimony of contemporaries seems to prove, beyond a doubt, that the British fired first.

The precedence as to the time and place where blood was first shed in the Revolution is claimed for Westminster, Vermont, where, more than a month before the affair at Lexington, officers of the crown in endeavoring to subdue a mob, caused the death of one of the rioters. The event is recorded in an epitaph inscribed upon a slab of slate in the old burial grounds at Westminster.

Concord had been aroused. Dr. Prescott had reached the town twenty minutes after he left Revere and Dawes in the hands of their captors.

Men from Lincoln, Acton and other places hurried toward Concord, and in the gray of early morning these, with the local Minute-men, were drawn up in battlearray on the Common, under the general command of Colonel James Barrett, a soldier of the French and Indian war. Guards were placed at the bridges which spanned Concord River, a sinuous, sluggish stream, and at the centre of the village; and some militia were sent toward Lexington to gain information about the invading regulars, of whom they had uncertain stories. At about seven o'clock the militia men came hurrying back with the startling news that the regulars were near, and in number three times that of the Americans then assembled. The whole force of defenders now fell back to a hill about eighty rods from the centre of the village.

Rumors of the events at Lexington, vague and uncertain, had reached the Minute-men at Concord. All Middlesex was awakened. The militia were flocking in from Carlisle, Chelmsford, Weston, Littleton, and Acton; and before ten o'clock the force amounted to full four hundred men—about one-half that of the regulars. They were drawn up in line by Joseph Hosmer, of Concord, acting adjutant, and Major Buttrick, of the same village, took the immediate command. When they saw the smoke ascend from the town, the ques-

tion pressed itself upon the heart and judgment of every man: "What shall we do?" There was no Continental Congress; they had no orders from the Provincial Congress; they were a little army of Middlesex farmers gathered for the defence of their homes and their rights: by what authority might they attack British troops acting under lawful orders? Would it not be treason? But the troops were trampling upon their rights, and the smoke of their burning property was rising before their eyes. They took counsel of duty, and acted promptly. Isaac Davis, of Acton drew his sword, and, turning to the company of which he was captain, said: "I haven't a man that's afraid to go." Then Colonel Barrett gave the word *march*, and the Acton company, followed by others, all under the command of Major Buttrick, pressed forward, in double file with trailed arms, to drive the British from the North Bridge. The latter began to destroy it, when Buttrick urged his men forward to save it. As they approached the river, they were fired upon by the regulars. Captain Davis and one of his company were killed, when Buttrick shouted: "Fire, fellow-soldiers; for God's sake, fire!" Immediately a full volley was given by the Minute-men, which killed three of the British and wounded several. Some other shots were fired, when the invaders retreated and the Minute-men took possession of the bridge.

The war begun at Lexington that morning was seconded at Concord at the middle of the forenoon, and at meridian the same day, British power in America became wane, when British regulars made a hasty retreat before an inferior number of provincial militia. Colonel Smith, hearing the firing at the bridge, sent out reinforcements. These met the retreating detachment. Seeing the increasing strength of the Minute-men, they turned about, and at noon the whole invading force retreated toward Lexington, the main column covered by strong flanking parties. It was soon perceived that the whole country was in arms. Minute-

men appeared with muskets everywhere. *War had begun.* In open highways the exasperated yeomanry attacked the retreating invaders; behind stone-walls, fences, buildings and in wooded ravines they ambushed, and assailed their foes with single shots or deadly volleys; and man after man fell dead in the British ranks or was badly wounded, until great wagons were filled with the slain and maimed. The heat was intense, and the dust in the roads was intolerable. Exhausted by want of sleep, fatigue of marching, famine and thirst, the eight hundred men—the flower of the British army in Boston—must have surrendered to the armed yeomanry of Middlesex, soon after reaching Lexington, had not relief arrived. It came in the form of reinforcements under Lord Percy, and met the fugitives within half a mile of Lexington Common.

The request sent to Gage early in the morning for reinforcements had been promptly answered by ordering Lord Percy to lead about a thousand men to support Smith and Pitcairn.

Rumors of the skirmish at Lexington had reached the people along the line of Percy's march, and the gathering militia hung like an angry, threatening cloud upon his flanks and rear. Between two and three o'clock he met the retreating army, when he opened fire from his cannon upon the pursuing Americans, formed a hollow square, and received in it the exhausted fugitives. Many of the soldiers fell upon the ground completely overcome with fatigue, some of them "with their tongues hanging out of their mouths, like those of dogs after a chase." Percy dared not tarry long, for the woods were swarming with Minute-men. After brief rest and partaking of some refreshments, the united force resumed their march toward Boston, satisfied that if they did not get back before sunset, they would not get there at all, for the militia were gathering from the neighboring counties. It was a fearful march for the troops, and for the people of the country through

which they passed. The Americans relentlessly pursued, while flanking parties of the British committed many hideous excesses, plundering houses, burning buildings, and ill-treating the defenceless inhabitants. All the way to West Cambridge the retreating army was dreadfully harassed by their concealed foes. There General William Heath, whom the Provincial Congress had appointed to the command of the militia, accompanied by Dr. Warren, concentrated a considerable body of Minute-men, and skirmished sharply with the British. The British kept the militia at bay, and pressed on toward Boston, narrowly escaping seven hundred Essex militia under Colonel Timothy Pickering, who attempted to bar the way to Charlestown, whither the fugitives were compelled to go. The regulars finally reached that village and the shelter of the guns of their frigates, when Heath ordered the pursuit to be stayed.

Charlestown had been in a state of panic all day. Dr. Warren rode through the streets early in the forenoon, and told the people of the bloodshed at Lexington. Then came the news from Concord, at which many of the men had seized their muskets and hastened to the country. The schools were dismissed; places of business were closed; and when it was known that the retreating British would pass through the town, many of the inhabitants gathered up their valuable effects and prepared to leave. The firing at Cambridge caused most of them to rush toward the Neck to seek safety in the country, when they were driven back in despair by the approaching fugitives. Rumors reached them that the British were slaughtering women and children in their streets, and many of the terror-stricken people passed the night in the clay-pits back of Breed's Hill. Not a single person was harmed in Charlestown. Percy ordered the women and children to stay in their houses. Reinforcements were sent over from Boston; guards were stationed; the wounded were taken to the

hospital, and quiet was restored. General Pigot assumed command at Charlestown the next morning, and before noon the shattered army were in their quarters in Boston. During the memorable day, the British lost in killed, wounded and missing, two hundred and seventy-three men; the Provincials lost one hundred and three.

Three days after the fight at Lexington and Concord, the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts assembled at Watertown, seven miles west of Boston, and chose Dr. Joseph Warren to be their President. A committee was appointed to draw up a "narrative of the massacre." They took many depositions, by which it was proven conclusively that the British fired the first shots.

The news of the events on the 19th of April spread rapidly over the land, and stirred society in the colonies as it had never been stirred before. There was a spontaneous resolution to environ Boston with an army of provincials that should confine the British to the peninsula. For this purpose, New Hampshire voted two thousand men, with Folsom and Stark as chief commanders. Connecticut voted six thousand, with Spencer as chief and Putnam as second. Rhode Island voted fifteen hundred, with Greene as their leader—Nathaniel Greene, who became one of the most efficient of the military officers in the war for independence. He was a Friend, or Quaker, in religious sentiment.

Meanwhile, most important events had occurred in Virginia. On the 20th of March a convention of representatives of that province met in St. John's Church in Richmond. They approved the acts of the Continental Congress, and thanked their representatives who sat in that body. They resolved to be firm in defence of their liberties, but expressed a hope of speedy reconciliation. Patrick Henry promptly rebuked their expression of that hope. He, like Samuel Adams, Hawley, and Greene, saw clearly that the colonies must fight. He knew the danger that threatened the liberties of his people. The House of Burgesses could no longer be relied

upon as an auxiliary of the people in their struggle, because of the continual interference of the royal governor. The colony was unprepared for the impending conflict. Only a little powder and a few muskets in the old magazine at Williamsburg comprised their munitions of war. In view of this weakness in the presence of danger which he foresaw, Henry proposed the appointment of a committee to prepare a plan for the embodying, arming, and disciplining a sufficient number of men to place the colony in a posture of defence. True patriots in the convention opposed the measure as mischievous at that time. They would not believe that armed resistance would be necessary. "It will be time enough to resort to measures of despair," they said, "when every well-founded hope has vanished." They suggested that the colonies were too weak to think of resisting the arms of Britain, and deprecated any action that should provoke war. They relied upon the innate justice of Englishmen for redress and reconciliation.

Henry's resolution was adopted by an almost unanimous vote, and himself, Richard Henry Lee, George Washington, Thomas Jefferson and others were appointed a committee to execute their designs. In a few days they submitted a plan for the defence of the colony, which was accepted, when the convention reappointed the delegates to the first Congress to seats in the second, to convene in May, adding Thomas Jefferson "in case of the non-attendance of Peyton Randolph." Henry's prophecy was speedily fulfilled. Almost "the next gale" that swept from the North brought to their "ears the clash of resounding arms" at Lexington and Concord.

These bold proceedings caused the name of Henry to be presented to the British government in a bill of attainder, with those of Randolph, Jefferson, the two Adams's and Hancock. They excited the official wrath of Governor Dunmore, who stormed in proclamations; and to frighten the Virginians he caused a rumor to be circulated that he intended to excite an insurrection

of the slaves. He extinguished the last spark of respect for himself, when, late in April he caused marines to come secretly at night from a vessel-of-war in the York River and carry to her the powder in the magazine at Williamsburg. The movement was discovered. Patrick Henry was at his house in Hanover when he heard of the act. He assembled a corps of volunteers and marched toward the capital, when the frightened governor sent a deputation with the receiver-general to meet him. Sixteen miles from Williamsburg, they had a conference with the patriot. The matter was compromised by the payment by the receiver-general of the full value of the powder. Henry sent the money to the public treasury, and returned home.

In the midst of this excitement, the governor called the House of Burgesses together, to consider a conciliatory proposition from Lord North. They rejected it; and the governor now fulminated proclamations against Henry and the committees of Vigilance, which were formed in every county in Virginia. He declared that if one of his officers should be molested, he would raise the royal standard, proclaim freedom to the slaves, and arm them against their masters. He surrounded his house—his “palace” as he called it—with cannon, and secretly placed powder under the floor of the magazine, with the evident intention of blowing it up, should occasion seem to call for the deed. The discovery of this “gunpowder plot” greatly excited the people. Then came a rumor, on the 7th of June (1775), that armed marines were on their way from the York River to assist Dunmore to enforce the laws. The people flew to arms. The governor, alarmed for his personal safety, withdrew, with his family that night to Yorktown and the next morning took refuge on board the British man-of-war *Fowey*. He was the first royal governor who abdicated government at the beginning of the Revolution.

Other royal governors were also compelled to abdicate; and, before the

close of the summer of 1775, British dominion in the English-American provinces had ceased forever, and the people were preparing for war.

News of the events of the 19th of April reached the city of New York on Sunday the 23d. Regarding patriotism as a holy thing, the Sons of Liberty there did not refrain from doing its work on the Sabbath. They immediately proceeded to lay an embargo on vessels bound to Boston with supplies for the British troops there. In defiance of the King's collector at that port, they landed the cargo of a vessel which he had refused to admit, demanded and received the keys of the Custom-house, dismissed those employed in it, and closed it.

In May, a convention of the representatives of the towns in Mecklenburg county, North Carolina, met at Charlotte, and by their proceedings, virtually declared the inhabitants of that county independent of the British crown. Taking into consideration the fact that the crown had proclaimed the people of the colonies to be rebels, the Convention declared that all government in their country had ceased, and proceeded by a series of resolutions, passed on the 31st of May, to organize independent local government for themselves. This famous “Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence” has been the subject of much discussion, disputations, and acute historical inquiry.

In the meantime, an army of patriots were gathering around Boston with a determination to confine the British troops to the peninsula, or drive them to their ships and out to sea.

Veterans of wars with the Indians and the French appeared as leaders; and before the close of April a fluctuating army of several thousand men were forming camps and piling fortifications around Boston, from Roxbury to the Mystic River, along a line of about twenty miles. So early as the afternoon of the 20th, General Artemas Ward, the senior military officer appointed by the Provincial Congress

of Massachusetts, was on the ground, and assumed the chief command. That Congress, like the Committee of Safety, worked day and night in patriotic duty.

They took legislative and executive power into their own hands, and so abolished royal government in Massachusetts; and they forwarded deputations to the Second Continental Congress that assembled early in May, suggesting the necessity for making provision for organizing an army competent to oppose the troops expected from Great Britain. Ticonderoga and Crown Point, on Lake Champlain, were captured May 10th, by Ethan Allen and Seth Warner, almost without striking a blow. The Continental Congress met in Philadelphia in May. John Hancock was elected President. Without discussing independence or any other issue, Congress made the cause of Massachusetts its own, elected George Washington of Virginia, Commander-in-chief, who set out for Boston.

At the beginning of June (1775) the army at Cambridge numbered about sixteen thousand men, all New Englanders. General Ward was the chief, and John Thomas was his lieutenant. Richard Gridley, who was the engineer-in-chief at the reduction of Louisburg, thirty years before, was commissioned to command an artillery corps and to be chief engineer, and was assisted by Henry Knox, a Boston bookseller, who had commanded an artillery company in that town. The British force in Boston was increasing by fresh arrivals. It numbered then about ten thousand men. Generals Howe, Clinton and Burgoyne had arrived late in May, and heartily joined Gage in forming and executing plans for dispersing the "rebels." Feeling strong with these veteran officers and soldiers around him, and the presence of several ships-of-war under Admiral Graves, the governor issued a most insulting proclamation, declaring martial law, branding those citizens in arms, and their abettors, as "rebels" and "parricides of the Constitution," and

offering pardon to all who should forthwith return to their allegiance, excepting Samuel Adams and John Hancock, who were reserved for condign punishment as traitors. This proclamation produced intense indignation throughout the province. "All the records of time," wrote Mrs. John Adams to her husband, "cannot produce a blacker page. Satan, when driven from the regions of bliss, exhibited not more malice. Surely the father of lies is superseded. Yet we think it the best proclamation he could have issued."

At about the middle of June, the British officers in Boston waked to the consciousness that "rebel" batteries at Dorchester Heights on the south, or on Charlestown Heights—Bunker's or Breed's Hills—on the north, might make the situation of the troops in the town not only disagreeable but perilous. They resolved to sally out and fortify these heights themselves, Dorchester on the 18th of June and Bunker's Hill a few days later. Rumors of this intention reached the Committee of Safety, to whom the Provincial Congress had delegated all discretionary powers to regulate the movements of troops, and they proposed the immediate fortification of Bunker's Hill before their enemy should come out.

On the 16th of June, an order was issued for the regiments of Colonels Frye, Bridges and Prescott, Samuel Gridley's company of artillery, and a fatigue party of Connecticut troops, under Captain Thomas Knowlton, of Putnam's regiment, to parade in the camp at Cambridge at six o'clock in the evening, with intrenching tools. The whole were placed under the command of Colonel William Prescott of Pepperell, who received written orders from General Ward to proceed to and fortify Bunker's Hill on the Charlestown peninsula. At nine o'clock in the evening, after a prayer by Dr. Langdon, President of Harvard College, a larger portion of these regiments, accompanied by General Putnam, marched over Charlestown Neck and along the road to Bunker's Hill. The whole force numbered about thirteen hundred men.

They proceeded silently in the darkness. A council was held in the gloom, when it was decided that Breed's Hill, nearer Boston, would be the most effective point for a fortification. They accordingly proceeded to that eminence overlooking Charlestown on the edge of the water, and there, in the starlight, a thousand men began the work with pick and spade. The waning moon rose at midnight, and in its pale light they worked in such silence until dawn, that they were not discovered by the sentinels on the ships-of-war that lay in sight below them, and whose voices, crying out hourly "All's well!" they could distinctly hear. There lay the *Lively*, *Glasgow*, *Somerset* and *Cerebus*, with floating batteries, in fancied security, while the toilers piled the earth so vigorously that a redoubt rose six feet above the earth at daybreak on Saturday, the 17th of June. Then they were discovered by the sentinel on the *Lively*. The captain beheld the strange apparition with wonder and alarm, and without waiting for orders from the admiral, he put springs on his cable and opened a sharp fire on the unfinished work. Other vessels opened broadsides upon that seeming creation of magic, while the Americans within the redoubt, unhurt by the shots, worked steadily on.

That cannonade at dawn on a beautiful summer morning, broke the slumber of the troops and citizens in Boston, and filled both with astonishment. Very soon roofs, balconies and steeples were alive with gazers upon the strange scene. Gage summoned his principal officers to a council, when it was decided that the Americans must be dislodged, at all hazards. The newly-arrived generals proposed to land troops on Charlestown Neck, and taking the "rebels" in reverse, cut off their retreat and prevent their reinforcement. Gage decided to attack them in front; and about twenty-five hundred troops, composed of infantry, grenadiers and artillery, with twelve pieces of cannon, crossed the Charles River in boats, at a little past noon, under cover of a tremendous cannonade from the shipping

and Copp's Hill, and landed toward the eastern extremity of the Charlestown peninsula, at the head of the present Chelsea Bridge. There Howe reconnoitred the American position, ordered his men to dine, and sent back to Boston for reinforcements. The men at the redoubt had toiled all the forenoon, completed their work, and at meridian exchanged the pick and spade for the accoutrements of war. Almost twelve hours had they labored, with little rest and food. They had cast up a redoubt about eight rods square, and an embankment on its left extending about a hundred yards toward the Mystic River; also a similar line on the right. The troops, wearied with work and want of food and sleep, asked for relief, but their leader said "No; you have cast up the redoubt, and you shall have the honor of defending it." They asked for reinforcements, which he at first declined calling for, supposing the British would not attack him. At length there were indications in the city that they were coming out, and Prescott sent to General Ward for reinforcements. That officer tardily complied with the request, and sent the New Hampshire regiments of Stark and Reed; also some small field pieces. Some other detachments joined Prescott, and Dr. Joseph Warren, who had just received a commission as major-general, arrived with the cheering news that other reinforcements were coming. Putnam was there, flying from point to point to make dispositions for securing a victory, and urging Ward, who was afraid of an attack upon Cambridge, to send on reinforcements.

When Howe was about to move at three o'clock in the afternoon, the Americans were prepared for the contest. Prescott, with Warren, and the constructors of the redoubt, were within that work, excepting the Connecticut troops, who, with the New Hampshire forces, were at a rail fence and breastworks on the west of the redoubt. The artillery companies were between the breastwork and a rail fence on the eastern side, and three



BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL

companies were stationed in Charlestown at the foot of Breed's Hill.

Just as the fight was about to begin, reinforcements came for Howe and landed at the present entrance to the Navy Yard. They consisted of a regiment, some companies of light infantry and grenadiers, and a marine battalion led by Major Pitcairn, of Lexington fame. The entire British force now confronting the Americans on the peninsula numbered more than three thousand.

At half-past three o'clock, Howe's great guns moved toward the redoubt, and opened fire upon the works. They were followed by the troops in two columns, commanded respectively by Generals Howe and Pigot, the infantry and grenadiers assailing the outworks. At the same time the guns on the ships and the battery on Copp's Hill hurled random shot in abundance upon the little earthwork. In the midst of the roaring thunder, the Americans were silent in the redoubt, and mostly so along the lines of intrenchments and fences, for their leader had ordered them not to fire until they could see the whites of the eyes of the approaching foe. The silence was a riddle to the English. It was soon solved. When they were within the prescribed distance, up rose the concealed host, fifteen hundred strong, at the word *Fire!* and poured such a tremendous and destructive storm of bullets upon the climbers of the green slope, that whole platoons and even companies were prostrated as a scythe would have mown down the long grass through which they were wading. Flags fell to the ground like the tall lilies in a mown meadow, and the shattered army was horror-struck for a moment. The bugles sounded, and they fell back to the shore, when a shout of triumph went up from the crest of Breed's Hill. Howe soon rallied his men, and repeated the attack with a similar result.

The British were greatly annoyed by shots from houses in Charlestown, and, at the request of Howe, shells were thrown into it from Copp's Hill, and set the village on fire. Very soon al-

most two hundred wooden buildings—dwellings and churches—were in flames, and Breed's Hill was shrouded in black smoke for awhile, until a gentle breeze that suddenly sprang up blew it away. At the same time General Clinton, who, from Copp's Hill, had seen the second recoil of the British troops, hastened across the river, and at the head of some broken battalions shared in the perils and success of a third attack, for Howe had again rallied his troops, and was pressing toward the Americans. The British had been ordered to march at quick step and use only their bayonets. These and the artillery soon drove the defenders of the breastworks into the redoubt. Again from that flaming centre went out dreadful volleys that shattered the head of the British column. The powder of the Americans was now almost exhausted. Their fire became more feeble. The British pushed up to and over the ramparts; and after a hand-to-hand struggle in the redoubt with bayonets and clubbed muskets, the Americans were driven out. They fled toward Charlestown Neck, where reinforcements had been arrested by a severe enfilading fire from the British vessels. The retreat of the main body was covered by the prolonged fighting of Stark, Reed and Knowlton at the outworks, with some reinforcements. Warren was the last to leave the redoubt, and was hurrying toward Bunker's Hill, where Putnam was trying to rally the fugitives, and was shot dead by a bullet that pierced his brain. The British loss in this battle—killed, wounded and prisoners—was ten hundred and fifty-four. Among the officers slain was Major Pitcairn. His pistols are now in the possession of descendants of General Putnam. The Americans lost in killed, wounded and missing, four hundred and fifty.

This conflict, known as the *Battle of Bunker's Hill*, though fought on Breed's Hill, lasted almost two hours. It was gazed upon by anxious thousands, who were on the neighboring hills and roofs and steeples in Boston, deeply interested spectators of a terri-

ble scene in which dear kindred were engaged. When the redoubt was carried, and the Americans retreated, the whole body of troops on the peninsula were compelled to run the gauntlet of cannon-balls from the British vessels, as they fled across Charlestown Neck. Many were slain there. The survivors encamped that night on Prospect Hill, and the British reposed on their arms on the field of battle until the next morning, when they passed over the water to Boston, never again to appear on the main land of Massachusetts.

On the twenty-first of the month, Washington left Philadelphia to take command of the army that was watching Gage. He was escorted as far as New York by Lee, Schuyler and others, all on horseback. They had scarcely gone twenty miles when they met a courier on his way to Congress with the news of the battle fought four days before. The courier's hurried account made Washington sad, but, upon being told that the patriots fought bravely, a weight of anxiety was lifted from his heart, and he exclaimed: "The liberties of the country are safe!"

The army now reached some 20,000 men, but was a disorganized mass of volunteers, who came and went at will. Washington undertook the difficult task of putting them into shape, and there was no more fighting for some time. Congress was still disposed to think the King would see the error of his ways and relent. Accordingly, a petition to him was drawn up and adopted, against the advice of John Adams and many of the New England delegates, who declared that the King would never yield. At the same time Congress adopted a declaration of the reasons for taking up arms, which was the forerunner of the Declaration of Independence. Both these documents were from the pen of John Dickinson, the most influential man in Congress, who at the same time was drilling a regiment for war. The petition to the King was useless, as Adams had foreseen, but before declaring irrevocably for Independence, an attack was ordered on Canada. Benedict Arnold

was sent, with the greatest difficulty, through the Maine wilderness to attack Quebec, while Richard Montgomery marched on Montreal by way of Lake Champlain, captured it and joined Arnold in December. The combined army was small and poorly equipped, and Quebec was the strongest fortress in America. An assault was made on the last day of the year 1775. Montgomery was killed, Arnold wounded, and the expedition failed completely, only a remnant reaching home.

Washington began his campaign in the spring. He seized Dorchester Heights, and fortified them so that Boston lay at his mercy. By agreement, Howe evacuated Boston, March 17th, 1776, and sailed away for Halifax. Except for a few raids, this was all of the fighting that took place in New England. Washington then marched his army to Brooklyn, Long Island, as he expected an attack would be made in that section.

The King's answer to the colonists was war. He tried to raise an army in England, but found it easier to hire some German troops. Strange as it may seem, this was no uncommon occurrence. The mercenaries were treated as so many cattle. The petty Princes of Germany did a fine business in hiring out troops, but they were not very bloodthirsty and usually had a pleasant time of it. It was a novel idea, however, to send them over for such a purpose, and the Hessians—so-called because most of them came from Hesse-Cassel—did not enjoy the plan at all. The King declared the colonists rebels, raised all the troops convenient, in addition to the 17,000 hired Hessians, and expected to put down the rebellion easily. When the colonists learned this their last hope of compromise was gone. About this time Thomas Paine published a tract called "Common Sense," which had great effect in molding public opinion in the direction of independence.

The Provincial Congress of New Jersey, disregarding the authority of the royal governor (a son of Dr. Franklin),

assumed all the functions of regular government with the sanction of the people. They proceeded to regulate the militia. They authorized the raising of two battalions for the Continental service, to be commanded respectively by William Maxwell and William Alexander (Lord Stirling), and the issuing of bills of credit to defray the public expenses. In Pennsylvania, through the influence of timid or wavering leaders, there was much hesitation during 1775, while Delaware, under the same executive head, took a decided stand in favor of the republican cause. Maryland, laying aside local disputes, did likewise. A Provincial Council for Safety superseded the royal government and took vigorous measures for sustaining the war that was begun. Comparative tranquillity prevailed during 1775 in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware and Maryland, while in New York, Virginia and all New England, the people were excited by political discord or actual hostilities within their borders.

After Governor Dunmore, of Virginia, fled to the *Fowey*, the people of that colony assembled at Richmond in a representative convention, and exercised the functions of government by providing for the common defence and for the security of the province from invasion from without, and a servile insurrection within, which the fugitive governor threatened to excite. They regulated the militia, provided for the raising of troops, and for issuing treasury notes. They also authorized the raising of independent companies for the defence of the frontiers.

Early in the autumn Dunmore proceeded to execute his threat concerning the slaves. He unfurled the royal standard over the *Fowey* at Norfolk, and proclaimed freedom to all slaves who should rally under it. He also proclaimed martial-law over all Virginia. He sent a party ashore to destroy the printing office of John Holt, an ardent Whig journalist; and at the head of a motley band of Tories and negroes, he committed depredations in southeastern Virginia. With the aid of some British vessels he attacked Hampton, near

Old Point Comfort, late in October, when he was repulsed by the militia. Exasperated by his defeat, he openly declared war against the people. The militia of Lower Virginia flew to arms; and under Colonel Woodford, who had been sent there with a body of Minutemen, they prepared to drive the traitor governor from their soil. He became alarmed, and after fortifying Norfolk, he caused some works to be thrown up at the Great Bridge over the Elizabeth River, near the Dismal Swamp, by which he expected the approach of Woodford. There a short but severe battle was fought on the morning of the ninth of December, 1775, between the Virginia militia and a band of Tories and negroes under Captains Leslie and Fordyce. The latter were routed and fled back to Norfolk in confusion, where Dunmore, covered as he was, had remained in safety. In his rage, he threatened to hang the boy who had brought him the first news of the disaster.

Woodford pushed on toward Norfolk, drove Dunmore to the small vessels-of-war, and entered the city in triumph, where he was joined by Colonel (afterward General) Robert Howe, with a North Carolina regiment, who took chief command. That spirited officer annoyed Dunmore exceedingly by desultory cannon-shots, attacks upon British foraging parties, and the discharge of musketry from the houses in Norfolk. At length the British frigate *Liverpool* came up the river from Hampton Roads, when the governor sent a message to Howe demanding the instant cessation of the firing, and also a supply of food, and threatening to cannonade the town in case of a refusal. A prompt refusal was sent back, when the governor executed his threat, and more. On the morning of the first of January, 1776, his vessels-of-war opened a cannonade upon Norfolk, and he sent a party of marines and sailors to set the city on fire. The conflagration raged for fifty hours, during which time the cannonade was kept up. The distress occasioned by this wicked act at that inclement season was terrible;

and the remembrance of it nerved the arms of the Virginia soldiers and the hearts of the Virginia people all through the struggle for independence.

In North Carolina resistance to oppression began early, as we have seen. The Mecklenberg Declaration of Independence in May, 1775, was but a culmination in action of the patriotic sentiments of the province. Governor Martin, who succeeded Tryon, alarmed by the threatening aspect of the popular will, first fortified his "palace" at New Berne, and then took refuge in Fort Johnson, near the mouth of the Cape Fear River. From that stronghold he was driven by the patriots in arms in July to the *Pallas*, sloop-of-war, in the Cape Fear. The fort was destroyed, and the governor culminated menacing proclamations from his floating quarters. His political friends were numerous; but under the wise leadership of Cornelius Harnett, John Ashe and a few others, the Whigs were so well organized that they silenced the Tories and kept the most obnoxious ones prisoners on their own plantations. The Continental Congress voted to furnish supplies for a thousand men in that province to counteract the influence of Governor Martin and his friends; and a popular convention that assembled at Hillsborough in August, and assumed the control of the colony, authorized the raising of two regiments, with Robert Howe and James Moore to command them. The governor, from the *Pallas*, sent a proclamation in which he denounced the Convention as treasonable, and the Convention denounced his manifesto as "a scandalous, malicious and scurrilous libel, tending to disunite the good people of the province," and ordered it to be burned by the common hangman.

Many Scotch Highlanders who were involved in the rebellion in 1745 in favor of the "Young Pretender" had settled in North Carolina, and were firm Loyalists. Among them was Flora MacDonald, who, in her beautiful young maidenhood, had saved the life of the "Pretender" after the battle of Colloden. She had settled at Cross

Creek (now Fayetteville), with her husband and children, and had great influence among her countrymen. They were all true to King George; and when, late in 1775, Governor Martin was acting in concert with Dunmore in southwestern Virginia, and was expecting a British force on the coast of North Carolina, he resolved to strike an effectual blow against the republicans of the province. He commissioned Donald MacDonald, an influential Scotchman at Cross Creek, a brigadier-general, and Flora's husband took a captaincy under him. He was authorized to embody the Highlanders and other Loyalists into a military corps, and raise the royal standard at Cross Creek. It was formally unfurled, at a large gathering of the clan, by Flora herself, who was then a handsome matron between forty and fifty years of age. Very soon fifteen hundred armed Tories gathered around it, while Colonel Howe was absent with his regiment, assisting the Virginians against Dunmore.

When Colonel Moore heard of this gathering of the Tories he marched with his regulars and some Hanover militia—eleven hundred strong—to disperse them. At the same time the Minute-men were gathering in large numbers. MacDonald was alarmed and fled toward the Cape Fear, hotly pursued by Moore. At a bridge over Moore's Creek (an affluent of the South River, a principal tributary of the Cape Fear), he was met by armed patriots of the Neuse region, under Colonels Caswell and Lillington on the evening of the 26th of February, 1776. The following morning a sharp fight occurred there, in which the Loyalists were defeated and dispersed; many of them were killed, and more were made prisoners. Among the latter were the general, and the husband of Flora MacDonald. This victory greatly inspired the Whigs and discouraged the Tories; and soon afterward the MacDonalds returned to Scotland in a sloop-of-war, encountering a French cruiser on the way. During an engagement between the two vessels, the brave Flora re-

mained on deck, and was wounded in the hand.

In South Carolina armed resistance was active in 1775. The Provincial Congress, over whom Henry Laurens presided, issued \$600,000 in paper money and voted to raise two regiments, of which Christopher Gadsden and William Moultrie were chosen colonels. Lieutenant-Governor Bull tried in vain to suppress the republican spirit; and when, in July, Lord William Campbell arrived at Charleston with the commission of governor, and called an assembly, that body declined to do any business under him. Executive powers were intrusted to a Council of Safety, who proceeded to organize civil government on a republican basis, and to put the province in a state of defence. The Tories in the back country, who were very numerous, were disarmed by a force under William Henry Drayton, a nephew of the lieutenant-governor. An armed vessel was sent to seize an English powder-ship lying in the harbor of St. Augustine, and returned to Charleston with fifteen hundred pounds of that much-needed article. Early in September, Colonel Moultrie was ordered to take possession of the little fort on Sullivan's Island near the entrance to Charleston harbor. In so doing he found no resistance; for the garrison, expecting the hostile visit, had fled to the British sloops-of-war *Tamar* and *Cherokee*, lying near, where they were soon joined by Governor Campbell, who took refuge there from a storm of popular indignation which had been created by a knowledge that he had tried to incite the Indians on the frontier to attack the Carolinians, and had tampered with the Tories in the interior. So ended royal rule in South Carolina, and republicanism reigned supreme.

Early in 1776, Moultrie was ordered to build a fort on Sullivan's Island large enough to accommodate a garrison of a thousand men, because information had been received by the Council of Safety that a British land and naval force was preparing to attack Charleston. The fort was built of palmetto

logs and earth, and was named Fort Sullivan. Over it was unfurled the flag of South Carolina, which Moultrie had designed. As there was then no national flag, and the provincial troops who garrisoned the fort were dressed in blue, and wore a silver crescent on the front of their caps, he had a large blue silk flag prepared with a white crescent in the dexter corner. This was the first American flag displayed in South Carolina.

Georgia, tardy in joining the Continental movement, felt the flame of patriotism warming the hearts and minds of her sons early in 1775. In February, the inhabitants of the parish of St. Johns, in that province, chose Lyman Hall to represent them in the second Congress, and he took his seat as such at the middle of May. In July the Provincial Convention that had been formed adopted the *American Association*, and chose delegates to represent the whole province in the Congress; and then the bright galaxy of the "Old Thirteen" was perfected. The royal governor, Sir James Wright, had tried in vain to suppress the rising tide of republicanism in Georgia. So early as May, 1775, when it was suspected that he was about to imitate General Gage, by seizing the ammunition of the province, several members of the Council of Safety and others broke open the magazine, sent a greater portion of the powder to Beaufort, South Carolina, and hid the remainder in their own garrets. When the governor and the Tories were preparing to celebrate the king's birthday, on the 4th of June, by firing the cannon on the battery in Savannah, some of the leading Whigs spiked the guns there and hurled them to the bottom of the bluff. Not long afterward a letter written by the governor to General Gage, asking him to send troops to Georgia to suppress the rising rebellion there, was intercepted at Charleston. The republicans were greatly exasperated; and a day or two afterward they seized a British ship at the mouth of the Savannah River, with thirteen thousand pounds of gunpowder on board. The spirit of resistance

waxed stronger and stronger, until, in January, 1776, the Whigs resolved to endure the adverse influence of the governor and the Tories no longer. Joseph Habersham, a member of the popular legislature, with some armed volunteers, seized Governor Wright and made him a prisoner on parole at his own house. A sentinel was placed before it, with orders not to allow any intercourse between the governor and the Loyalists. During a stormy night in February, Sir James escaped through a back window of his house, walked five miles down the borders of the river with a friend, and then entering an open boat, fled in the pelting rain, under the cover of darkness, for shelter to the British vessel-of-war *Scarborough*, lying in Tybee Sound.

So was ended royal rule in Georgia. At the same time royal authority had really ceased in all the colonies. Each had formed a provisional government for itself, and each looked to the Continental Congress as the central director of the civil and military movements of the United Colonies in the great struggle before them.

We left the little army of republicans in Canada, bereaved of their brave leader, shattered in strength and shivering with cold outside the walls of Quebec. The time of the enlistment of many of the soldiers expired with the year, and they went home; and the besieging army was reduced to about four hundred Americans, and as many uncertain Canadian volunteers. Arnold, on whom the command devolved, though disabled by his wound, retired with them to Sillery, above Quebec, where he formed a camp and passed a rigorous winter. Schuyler sent urgent appeals to the Continental Congress and that of New York for men, money and munitions. How could they be furnished? With difficulty the army of Washington on the seacoast, in the midst of a populous region, could be supplied with these; how then could they be furnished for service on the St. Lawrence, more than three hundred miles from the sea, with a desolate wilderness between, and the

broad forests and few open fields and lakes covered with snow and ice? It was impossible.

Washington, who was then at New York with a little more than eight thousand troops, sent three thousand of his best men, under General Sullivan, for service in Canada.

Meanwhile, Congress had appointed Dr. Franklin, Samuel Chase and Charles Carroll a board of commissioners invested with full authority to proceed to Canada. They perceived that the main objects of their mission could not be obtained, and it was determined to withdraw the troops to St. Johns, and there to fortify and reinforce them, so that they might be an impassable barrier to an army that might attempt to penetrate the country below.

The force was too weak to make a successful stand at St. Johns against the great army of Burgoyne that were slowly pursuing, and they continued their flight to Crown Point, in open boats without awnings (for they could get none), exposing the sick to the fiery sun and the drenching rain.

Terrible were the scenes at Crown Point after the fragments of the army were gathered there. More than thirty victims of disease were buried daily, for awhile. Every spot and everything seemed to be infected with pestilence. For a short time the troops were poorly housed, half-naked and inadequately fed; their daily rations being raw salt pork, hard bread and unbaked flour. Five thousand men were there. During two months the Northern Army had lost by desertion and sickness full five thousand soldiers. So ended in disaster the remarkable invasion—one of the boldest ever undertaken, all things considered.

The army under Washington, which had driven the British out of Boston, soon afterward appeared in other fields of duty, a part of them, as we have seen, in Canada, but more at New York and in its vicinity. At the beginning of the year Washington ascertained that Sir Henry Clinton was about to sail from Boston, with

troops, on a secret expedition. It was suspected that New York was his destination, where Governor Tryon was ready to head a formal demonstration in favor of the crown. The Tories there were active and numerous. Disaffection prevailed extensively; and it was fostered by Tryon, whose "palace" was the armed-ship *Duchess of Gordon*, lying in the harbor. Fearing that province might be lost to the republicans, Washington ordered General Charles Lee, then recruiting in Connecticut, to embody the volunteers and march to New York. Governor Trumbull lent his official aid to Lee, and within a fortnight after the latter received his orders, he was in full march for the Harlem River with twelve hundred men and the bold Son of Liberty, Isaac Sears, as his adjutant-general.

Sir Henry Clinton's vessels appeared off Sandy Hook on the day when Lee arrived in New York. He was bound for the coast of North Carolina to execute a plan of the ministry for the subjugation of that province, suggested by Governor Martin the previous autumn. It was believed by the king and his advisers that the people of the southern provinces would join the royal troops when they should appear; but Dartmouth, evidently having some doubts, instructed Clinton, in case the people were not loyal, to distress them by burning any of their towns that might refuse to submit.

A fleet commanded by Sir Peter Parker, and designed to act under Clinton's orders, did not leave Ireland until February. Then the vessels were delayed by storms. Clinton, meanwhile, had been awaiting their arrival with impatience. It was May before he entered the Cape Fear River with some of them. Satisfied that the North Carolians could not be coaxed nor frightened into submission, the British forces proceeded to attempt the reduction of Charleston, South Carolina, as a prelude to the fall of Savannah. General Lee, who had been ordered by Washington to watch the movements of Clinton, had made his way south-

ward by land and arrived at Charleston on the 4th of June.

The militia from the surrounding country now flocked into Charleston at the call of President Rutledge. These, with Carolina regulars and the troops from the North, brought by Armstrong and Lee, made an available force of almost six thousand men. Colonel Gadsden commanded the garrison in Fort Johnson, on James Island, three miles from the city. Colonel Moultrie was at the head of the troops in Fort Sullivan, on Sullivan's Island, and Colonel Thompson commanded riflemen from Orangeburg, stationed on the eastern end of that island.

After long delay Clinton completed his arrangements for a combined attack of ships and troops upon Fort Sullivan, which was chosen to receive the first blow. It was garrisoned by about four hundred men, mostly South Carolina regulars, with a few volunteer militia; and its only aid was a sloop, with powder, anchored off Haddrell's Point. Lee had pronounced the fort absolutely untenable, and called it "a slaughter pen;" and he advised Rutledge to withdraw the garrison and abandon Sullivan's Island without striking a blow. Rutledge refused. Lee, with sharp words and angry tone, persisted in his views, and if he dared he would have withdrawn the troops in spite of the wiser President. He annoyed Moultrie by his orders looking to a flight from the fort, directing him to build bridges for retreat to the main; but Moultrie did not believe that he could be driven from his little fortress of soft palmetto logs, for he knew, better than Lee, their resisting power. Lee tried to weaken his force by ordering detachments to be sent from the fort; and up to the last moment he wished to have Moultrie removed from the command. Had he been acting in favor of the enemy he could not have given better advice; and in view of his subsequent treason, it cannot be sure that he was not, at that time, acting the part of a traitor.

Clinton had landed soldiers on Long Island, a strip of sandy land separated

from Sullivan's Island by a shallow creek. There he erected batteries to confront those of Thompson on Sullivan's Island, and awaited the pleasure of Admiral Parker. On the morning of the 28th of June, Sir Peter, from his flag-ship, the *Bristol*, gave a signal for attack.

At this time, Clinton with his two thousand land troops and six hundred seamen, attempted to co-operate with the fleet by landing on Sullivan's Island and attacking the fort on its unfinished side. He opened his batteries on Long Island, upon Thompson, who had only two guns, but his Carolina riflemen were expert and dangerous sharpshooters. Clinton embarked some of his troops in boats covered by floating batteries in the creek; but the soldiers could not land in the face of the terrible volleys from Thompson's men, and were speedily disembarked. The baronet accomplished almost nothing during the furious conflict of ten hours on that bright and hot June day. Thompson held him at bay until the battle ceased at evening.

In that battle—one of the most severe of the war—the British lost in killed and wounded, two hundred and twenty-five men. Of the four hundred and thirty-five in the beleaguered fort, only ten were killed and twenty-two wounded, though thousands of shot and many shells were hurled against them. Charleston was saved, and South Carolina was defended from invasion by the valor of her own sons; and in honor of the brave colonel who commanded the garrison, the palmetto log-fortress was named *Fort Moultrie*. After remaining a few days at Long Island to repair damages, the British fleet, with Clinton's army, sailed for New York, where they joined the forces under General and Admiral Howe.

Immediately after the evacuation of Boston, Washington hastened to New York with a greater part of his army, for he suspected Howe of an intention to attack that city. British war vessels lingered in Boston harbor even so late as June, and there was a prevail-

ing fear in New England that Howe intended to return to their shattered capital. It was therefore determined by the Massachusetts Assembly to drive the ships to the sea. This was done at the middle of June, by General Lincoln, at the head of militia and a few regulars, who so annoyed the ships with cannon planted on the shores, that they departed never to return. Howe went to Halifax to prepare for attacking the Americans at what he supposed to be a more vulnerable point.

In June, 1776, General Howe sailed with his recruited army from Halifax for New York, and arrived at Sandy Hook at near the close of that month. There he was soon afterward joined by a large fleet commanded by his brother Richard, Earl Howe. The latter had been made joint commissioner with the general, and authorized by the king to offer pardon to all rebels, in his name, and to negotiate for peace or to prosecute the war as circumstances might demand.

When Washington arrived in New York, he pushed forward the defences of the city, and in the Hudson Highlands, for already intimations had reached the Americans that a grand scheme of the ministers for dividing the colonies, was to effect a junction between troops going up the Hudson Valley, and others coming down from the St. Lawrence, the latter being already at the foot of Lake Champlain. Fort Washington was built on the highest part of Manhattan Island (now Washington Heights); and strong batteries were constructed near it as well as in the more immediate vicinity of the little town whose northern verge was The Fields, now City Hall Park.

The commander-in-chief went to Philadelphia to confer with the Continental Congress on the topic of the general defence of the colonies, for the theatre of war was evidently about to expand along the entire seaboard. It was then known that the mercenaries of the British monarch were on their way to America; and it was believed that the city of New York was destined to receive the first stunning blow

from the combined British and German armies. Danger appeared imminent, and Congress authorized the enlistment of thirteen thousand troops from New England, New York and New Jersey; also the establishment of a Flying Camp under General Hugh Mercer, composed of men from Pennsylvania, Delaware and Maryland. These were to rendezvous at Amboy, in New Jersey, opposite Staten Island. The Congress also authorized the forming of a body of Indians, two thousand in number, for service in Canada, to oppose the savages employed by Carleton. General Schuyler, who was wiser concerning the Indians than the senators at Philadelphia, asked the significant question: "Where are the Indians to be found?" He knew it would be impossible to gather so large a number for such a purpose. "I think," he said, "that if the Indians can be kept from joining the enemy, it will be as much as we have a right to expect." Knowing their cruel disposition, he was averse to employing them in war; he knew, also, that their maxim in alliances with the white people was to adhere to the strongest, most liberal in giving rewards, and with whom there was the least danger. Schuyler labored successfully in effecting that neutrality; he held the Six Nations in restraint from 1775 until 1783.

Washington returned to New York early in June. Soon after his return, a foul conspiracy, hatched by the unscrupulous Governor Tryon on board the *Duchess of Gordon*, was discovered. The brothers Howe were hourly expected to enter the harbor of New York with a powerful fleet and army, and a plan was formed for causing the uprising of the Tories in New York and in the lower valley of the Hudson at that moment; to cut off all communication with the mainland; to fire the magazine; to murder Washington, his staff and other leading officers of the American army in the city; or to seize them and send them to England for trial on a charge of treason; and, making prisoners of the great body of the troops, carry out the separating design of the

ministry just mentioned. The mayor of New York (Matthews) was Tryon's chief vehicle of communication with the Tories. A large number of persons were concerned in the plot. Washington's Life Guards were tampered with, and two of them were seduced from their fidelity. To one of them, an Irishman named Hickey, was entrusted the task of destroying Washington. He resolved to poison his commander, and tried to make the general's housekeeper, a faithful maiden, an accomplice in the deed. The maiden had revealed the plot to Washington. He ordered the arrest of Hickey, who was tried by a court-martial and was condemned. He was hanged on a tree in Colonel Rutger's field, a little east of the Bowery, on the 28th of June, 1776, in the presence of twenty thousand people. Already Mayor Matthews and more than twenty others had been arrested by order of the Provincial Congress, but only Hickey suffered death. It was the first military execution in the Continental Army; and it is a notable fact that the delinquent was from a body of men who were specially chosen for their trustworthiness. The horrible plot was traced directly to Governor Tryon, as its author.

The question of independence now agitated Congress. Some of the ablest men in it, including Dickinson, thought the time had not yet come to make the declaration, and urged that the co-operation of France or some other nation be first secured. It was finally agreed that those who opposed the movement, but acquiesced in it, should not vote at all, so as to make the matter unanimous. Richard Henry Lee had offered a resolution declaring independence, June 7th, while Congress met in Carpenter's Hall, but action was delayed until a select committee should draw up a report. Dickinson would have headed this committee and drawn the declaration, but for his personal views, which were sincere and cost him much of his popularity and future Federal honors, though he was afterward President (Governor) of Delaware and of Pennsylvania. The Declaration was

drawn up by Thomas Jefferson, of Virginia, and revised by Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, Roger Sherman and Robert R. Livingston. This declaration was adopted July 4th, 1776, in the State House, which has been restored to the exact condition it was at that time.

Right here the student should lay down this book and carefully read the Declaration of Independence.

The far-reaching results of the Declaration of Independence were not appreciated at the time, by the great body of the people. There was general joy, because there was a vague idea in the public mind that something beneficial might immediately ensue.

Meanwhile the resolution of Congress adopted in May, recommending the colonies to form State governments, had been acted upon by several of them. New Hampshire had prepared for a State government, in January, 1776. The royal charters of Rhode Island and Connecticut were considered sufficiently democratic; and that of the latter remained the fundamental law of the State until 1842. New Jersey adopted a State constitution on the 2d of July; Virginia adopted one on the 5th, and Pennsylvania on the 15th. On the 14th of August, Maryland followed their example; Delaware on the 20th of September, and North Carolina on the 18th of December. Georgia adopted a State constitution on the 5th of February, 1777, and New York on the 20th of April following; but South Carolina did not follow the example until the 19th of March, 1778. Massachusetts, the most eager champion for local self-government, deferred the important measure that secured it, until the 2d of March, 1780. Within a year after the Declaration of Independence was made, most of the States had organized settled governments, but no national government was established until the armed struggle had been going on for six years, as we shall observe hereafter.

General Howe arrived at Sandy Hook at the close of June, and on the 8th of July he landed nine thousand men on Staten Island. There he awaited the

arrival of his brother, Admiral Howe, with his fleet bearing British regulars and German hirelings. These, and the broken forces of Clinton and Parker from the Carolinas, soon joined General Howe; and by the middle of August, the British, land and naval, numbered almost thirty thousand men.

The brothers entered upon a narrow diplomatic mission immediately after the arrival of the admiral. They sought first to open communication with Washington. For this purpose they sent a note to him by a flag, inclosing a copy of a declaration of the royal clemency. The letter did not bear the official title of the commander-in-chief—only "George Washington, Esq."—and he refused to receive it. The admiral addressed a friendly letter to Dr. Franklin in a similar manner, and received from the statesman a reply, courteous in tone, but in no wise soothing to his feelings as a soldier or a Briton. Franklin concluded his letter by saying: "This war against us is both unjust and unwise; posterity will condemn to infamy those who advised it; and even success will not save from some degree of dishonor those who voluntarily engage to conduct it." The brothers suspected Franklin uttered the sentiments of the Congress with whom they were not permitted to treat; and that the words of Washington were in accordance with the views of the same body. War, and not peace, now occupied the attention of the brothers for awhile.

Captain Nathan Hale was chosen by his colonel from among other volunteers for the perilous service of a spy. He entered the British camp as a plain young farmer, and made sketches and notes unsuspected. At length a Tory kinsman betrayed him, and he was taken before General Howe at the Beekman mansion in New York. Hale frankly avowed his name, rank and his character of a spy, which his papers revealed, and Howe ordered him to be hanged the next morning (September 22d, 1776), without even the form of a trial. Hale met death with firmness. With unfaltering voice he said: "I only

regret that I have but one life to lose for my country." These were the last words uttered by the young patriot, then only a little more than twenty-one years of age.

Silas Deane was sent to France by Congress, in the spring of 1776, as a commercial agent to obtain supplies for an army.

At that time, Beaumarchais, an irrepressible Frenchman, conspicuous in the literary and political world of Paris, was a secret agent of the French government in watching the course of the British ministry toward the colonies, and feeling the pulse of public opinion in England.

Arthur Lee (brother of Richard Henry Lee), an aspiring young barrister, and whom Franklin had left in charge of the agency for Massachusetts when he returned to America, became acquainted with Beaumarchais's expressed desire to aid the Americans. Of this he gave information to the Congress, through his brother, who was a member of that body.

Early in the autumn of 1776, the Congress sent Dr. Franklin as a Commissioner of the United States to the French Court, with Deane and Lee as his assistants. The Congress had elaborated a plan for a treaty with France, by which it was hoped the States would secure their independence. So first began the Foreign Diplomacy of the United States.

Washington had, early in his chieftaincy, urged upon the Congress the necessity of the establishment of a permanent army, and with prophetic words had predicted the very evils arising from short enlistments and loose methods of creating officers, which now prevailed. But they were so afraid of the "military despotism" implied by a standing army, that much of the efficacy of this longer term of enlistment was neutralized by retaining the old method of levying troops by requisitions upon the several States. Yet he never despaired nor uttered a petulant word of complaint, nor threatened to resign. His duty as a patriot and soldier was plain, and he pursued it.

The crest of Mount Washington was crowned with a five-sided earthwork, named Fort Washington. It was two hundred and thirty feet above tide-water, a mile northward of headquarters at Harlem Heights, with strong ravelins and outworks, and mounting thirty-four great guns. This was the principal fortification within the American lines, and was commanded by General Putnam. General Greene, the best leader in the army, excepting Washington, was in command of Fort Lee on the Palisades on the New Jersey shore.

At this time General Charles Lee was making his way toward the camp. He had been called from the Carolinas by the Congress, to take the chief command of the army in the event of Washington being disabled. His fame was very great, not because of anything of importance which he had done, but from what it was supposed he was capable of doing. But he was a charlatan, and afterward became a traitor to a cause which he really despised and supported only from base motives.

John Adams, then the chairman of the Board of War, gave Lee the confidence which he always withheld from Washington. When a letter from the commander-in-chief, warning the Congress of the great dangers to which his army was exposed, was read in that body, Adams treated it as the utterance of a timid man. "The British force is so divided," he said, "they will do no great matter this fall;" and at that critical moment, when his energy was most needed in his responsible position, he obtained leave of absence.

In August, 1776, Howe landed on Long Island and defeated Washington's troops under Sullivan on the 27th. Washington then, under cover of fog, crossed to New York and took position at Harlem Heights, where Howe attacked him, but was repulsed. At White Plains Washington received a reverse, and on November 16th Fort Washington on the Hudson was captured by Howe, with 3,000 prisoners. Its unfortunate garrison filled the prisons of New York and crowded the British prison-ships, wherein they were

dreadful sufferers.

The *Jersey* was the most noted of the floating British prisons. She was the hulk of a 64-gun ship lately dismantled, and placed in Wallabout Bay near the present Brooklyn Navy Yard. Sometimes more than a thousand prisoners were confined in her at one time, where they suffered indescribable horrors from unwholesome food, foul air, filth and vermin, and from small-pox, dysentery and prison fever, that slew them by scores. Their treatment was often brutal in the extreme, and despair reigned there almost continually. Every night, the living, the dying and the dead were huddled together. At sunset each day was heard the savage order, accompanied by horrid imprecations—"Down, rebels, down!" and in the morning the significant cry—"Rebels, turn out your dead!" The dead were then selected from the living, sewed up in blankets, taken upon deck, carried on shore and buried in shallow graves. Full eleven thousand victims were taken from the *Jersey*, and so buried, during the war. Their bones were gathered and placed in a vault by the Tammany Society of New York in 1808, with imposing ceremonies. That vault is at the southwestern corner of the Navy Yard, where their remains still rest. Several years ago a magnificent monument dedicated to the martyrs of the British prisons and prison-ships was erected in Trinity Churchyard, near Broadway, at a point over which speculators were trying to extend Albany street through the property of that corporation. The street was not opened. So patriotism triumphed over greed.

The army in the North, sick and dispirited, halted, as we have seen, at Crown Point, whither General Gates was sent to take the command of them, General Sullivan retiring. Gates at once aspired to be chief of the Northern Department, then under the command of General Schuyler, and his pretensions were supported by a small faction in the Congress.

Satisfied that Carleton would attempt the recapture of the Lake fortresses,

so as to control the waters of Lake Champlain, the little army, by order of General Schuyler, withdrew from Crown Point and took post at Ticonderoga, where they began the construction of a flotilla of small war-vessels. By the middle of August, a little squadron was in readiness for service at Crown Point, and General Arnold was appointed its chief commander.

When Carleton heard of the ship-building on the lake, he sent about seven hundred skilled workmen from Quebec to St. John, to prepare a fleet to cope with the Americans. In the course of a few weeks a considerable naval force was floating on the Sorel, and a strong land force under Burgoyne were on *Isle aux Noix*. On the 11th of October, the British fleet defeated Arnold and he retreated to Crown Point.

Early in September, 1776, the Cherokees, excited to hostilities by British emissaries, were defeated and subdued by the exasperated settlers.

Governor Carleton, who was with his fleet, took possession of Crown Point on the 14th of October. Although he was within two hours' sail of Ticonderoga, then garrisoned by only three thousand effective men, with twenty-five hundred on Mount Independence opposite, he was too cautious to attempt its capture. At the beginning of November, he fled back to Canada, with his troops, where he found himself about to be superseded in military command by General Burgoyne.

Washington with his little army near Fort Lee was on the Jersey shore. He was soon disturbed by Lord Cornwallis, who, early on the morning of the 20th of November, crossed the Hudson from Dobb's Ferry to Closter's Landing, five miles above Fort Lee, and with artillery climbed a steep, rocky road to the top of the Palisades, unobserved by Greene. That officer was told of his danger by a farmer, who awoke him from slumber. Greene gave warning to Washington, who ordered Lee to cross the Hudson immediately and join him. Greene fled in haste from Fort Lee, with two thousand men, leaving behind cannon, tents, stores

and camp equipage, and barely escaping capture. Washington covered the retreat of the garrison so effectually that less than one hundred stragglers were made prisoners.

It was now suspected that the British would move on Philadelphia. Washington, with his army, led by himself, and reduced to less than four thousand men, marched toward the Delaware to impede the progress of the invader as much as possible. His force decreased at almost every step. The patriotism of New Jersey seemed to be paralyzed by the presence of a British army on the soil. Hundreds of republicans—even men who had been active in the patriot cause—signed a pledge of fidelity to the British crown. During the twelve days that Washington was making his way to the Delaware, so closely pursued by Cornwallis, that the rear-guard of the Americans often heard the music of the van-guard of the royal troops, he was chilled by the seeming indifference of the people. He halted at points as long as possible, for Lee to join him and so give him strength to make a stand against his pursuers; but that officer, assuming that his was an independent command, paid no attention to the order of his superior. He was then evidently playing a desperate game of treason. Daily messages to him, urging him to push forward with his troops, did not affect him. He lingered long on the Hudson, until many of his soldiers had left him and gone home; and he tried to induce Heath to weaken his force in the Highlands by assigning for duty under Lee, two thousand of his men. Failing in this, he moved slowly as far in the rear of Washington as possible; and finally (eleven days after the chief had reached the Delaware), he took lodgings at Baskingridge in East Jersey, three miles from his camp, and nearer the enemy. There, on the morning of the 13th of December, he suffered himself to be captured by a small British scout. General Sullivan led the rest of the troops to join Washington. Everything seemed to be going against the patriotic cause, and one more defeat

must have crushed all present hope of independence. Washington rightly considered that the Hessians at Trenton would be making merry at Christmas time. On that night (1776), crossing the Delaware in small boats during a blinding snowstorm, he captured the whole of the Hessians (1,000). This revived the hopes of the patriots. Lord Cornwallis now brought an army to Trenton to destroy Washington, but the latter stole away one night and on the morning of January 3, 1777, defeated the British at Princeton, and then marched to Morristown. Cornwallis then went back to New York. This rather disheartened the British, but they said it only postponed the end a short time, as General Burgoyne was coming from Canada with an army. It was the great military fault of the British generals that they perpetually tried to hold territory rather than crush the American army. These mistakes cost them dear. Burgoyne was to come down from Canada and the plan, laid in London, was that another army under Colonel St. Leger should start from Oswego, while Howe should move up from New York and all three armies should join and operate against the enemy. The story goes that the order to Howe was written out in London, but was corrected in several places. The Minister laid it aside to have a fair copy made, and forgot all about it, and it never reached New York. Burgoyne started with his army and Indian allies in the spring of 1777, but found his task more difficult than he expected. The roads through the woods were poor, and the Americans felled so many trees across them that it was slow work to move the army. Burgoyne heard of some supplies at Bennington, Vermont, and sent a detachment of Hessians to destroy them. The Hessians were defeated by Colonel John Stark, and his Green Mountain boys. St. Leger had started from Oswego and had raised a lot of Indians as allies. General Nicholas Herkimer went to meet him, but was ambushed near Oriskany by a large force of British and Indians. Herkimer was mortally wounded and with-

drew his forces. Arnold hastened to the relief of Herkimer's troops, St. Leger retreated to Lake Ontario, and that part of the expedition failed. To meet Burgoyne there was a small but tolerably effective army under General Schuyler, but he was removed on false suspicion, and General Horatio Gates, a vain mediocre man, given command. Burgoyne was now in a critical condition. He had no help coming from any source, and his supplies were cut off from Canada. He fought an indecisive battle at Bemis Heights, and suffered a defeat near Saratoga, where Arnold fiercely attacked him. The poor Hessians were greatly alarmed and refused to fight any more. Burgoyne's army had dwindled to 6,000. He surrendered, October 17, 1777, to Gates, who thus obtained an honor he did not deserve. As a result of this, France recognized the Independence of the United States, loaned some money, promised a great deal of aid on land and sea, very little of which was really performed; but it was a great advantage to us, as England had to fight France once more, who was now joined by Spain and later by Holland.

One would suppose that General Howe would naturally want to hunt up Washington's army and defeat it. Instead he decided to capture Philadelphia, and at the same time hold New York. He sailed southward, but did not come up the Delaware, choosing the Chesapeake. Washington marched to Wilmington, Delaware, and up the Brandywine to Chadd's Ford. Here he met the British, and for a time prevented the crossing, but a detachment of the latter crossed further up the stream and outflanked Washington, September 11, 1777, who was compelled to retreat. In this battle General Lafayette, a young French nobleman who had come to our aid, was wounded. Washington retreated and Howe entered Philadelphia. Washington attacked him in the suburbs of the city at Germantown, October 4, 1777, but owing to a fog and tactical mistakes, he was defeated and retired to Valley Forge on the Schuylkill for winter

quarters. Howe spent the winter in Philadelphia, but accomplished absolutely nothing in a military way. Many of the Philadelphians, especially the Quakers, were opposed to the war anyway, and Howe simply divided his forces without accomplishing anything.

That winter at Valley Forge was one of the darkest periods of the war. Through the impotence of Congress, the rascality of contractors, and the lack of system, the army was often without food or clothing. Men went barefoot in the snow and many froze to death or starved. During this winter a damnable plot on the part of some of the officers and men in civil life was hatched to supplant Washington. This conspiracy, known as the Conway Cabal, was discovered, but its authors were not punished. The only ray of light was the fact that Baron Steuben, an accomplished German officer, had come over, and by the greatest expenditure of energy had drilled the troops so that they were more effective than ever before. Howe was now succeeded by Sir Henry Clinton, who evacuated Philadelphia. Washington started after him and overtook him at Monmouth, New Jersey, where he delivered battle, June 28, 1778. The treacherous Lee, who had been exchanged, insisted on taking the lead, but had scarcely begun to fight when he retreated. Fortunately Washington came up in time to arrest Lee and continue the battle. The British retreated to New York as fast as they could, losing men and munitions on the way. Washington marched up the Hudson to West Point. A French fleet came over and an attack was made on a British garrison at Newport without success. There was little fighting in the North for the rest of the year, except that small bands of British raided Connecticut without doing serious damage. One of the strongest British fortifications on the Hudson was Stony Point. One dark night General Anthony Wayne carried it by assault with little loss. This is considered one of the most brilliant events in military history.

Late in 1775, the Congress ordered

the establishment of a Continental navy. The thirteen vessels then authorized to be built or purchased were furnished early in 1776, and these, with many privateers, did good service on the ocean.

Esek Hopkins, of Rhode Island, was appointed commander-in-chief of the little Continental navy. The avowed object of the armament was to intercept British vessels bearing supplies for the British armies in America, but the Continental war-ships were frequently more aggressive. Hopkins sailed on his first cruise in February, 1776. He left the Delaware with a small squadron of five vessels, carrying an aggregate of ninety-eight guns. The *Alfred*, 28, was his flag-ship, and his first-lieutenant was John Paul Jones, who afterward became famous. Jones raised on the *Alfred*, in the Delaware, in December, 1775, the first American ensign ever shown on an American vessel-of-war. Hopkins's captains were Whipple, Biddle, J. B. Hopkins and Hazard, all of them, but Biddle, Rhode Island men. The first cruise was against Lord Dunmore, then distressing the Virginia coast. Hopkins extended his cruise to the Bahama Islands to capture British stores at Nassau, New Providence, and was successful. Among the spoils were one hundred cannon. Retiring, he operated off the New England coasts; but the Congress censured him for departing from the line of his instructions, and dismissed him from the service. His lieutenant, Jones, was placed in command of the *Alfred*, the following autumn. No naval commander-in-chief was subsequently appointed.

Jones was always successful. While in command of the *Providence*, in September, 1776, he was chased by two British ships-of-war off the Carolina coasts, but escaped, and sailing eastward as far as Nova Scotia, he captured and carried into Newport fifteen prizes. Meanwhile Whipple and Biddle were equally successful off the eastern coasts; and the New England colony vessels were very active. These, and the Continental cruisers, deprived the British army of about five hundred

soldiers during the summer and fall of 1776. No less than three hundred and forty-two British vessels fell into the hands of the Americans that year.

In the fall of 1776, the Continental ship *Reprisal*, Captain Wickes, carried Dr. Franklin, as American Commissioner, to France, where she cruised in European waters, the first American armed ship that had appeared there. She captured several British prizes in the Bay of Biscay. Among these was the royal English packet on its way from Falmouth to Lisbon. These prizes were sold in French ports, and the proceeds were used by the American commissioners in Paris for purchasing other vessels in French ports. In the summer of 1777, Wickes, with a little squadron of three vessels, sailed entirely around Ireland, sweeping the channel in its whole breadth, and capturing or destroying a great number of British merchant vessels. This cruise produced a powerful impression on the public mind in England, and France was required to renounce its friendship for the rebellious colonists or pronounce a disclaimer. Policy, then, dictated the latter course, and the American vessels were ordered to leave the French coast. When the *Reprisal* was returning homeward, she was wrecked on the coast of Newfoundland, and Captain Wickes and all of his people but the cook perished.

Early in 1777, the *Randolph*, Captain Biddle, sailed on her first cruise. She was successful; but in the spring of 1778, while fighting a British vessel-of-war, she blew up, and Biddle and all of his crew perished, excepting four men. During 1777, Captains Manly, McNeil, Saltonstall, Olney, Hinman, Thompson and others made successful cruises; and the year closed with a loss to the British of four hundred and sixty-seven merchantmen, notwithstanding they had seventy vessels-of-war in American waters.

Soon after the conclusion of the treaty of alliance in 1778, French vessels-of-war went out on the ocean to co-operate with the Americans, and the Congress fitted out some more armed ships at

the same time. Among them, the *Alliance*, 32, became the favorite ship of the patriots. The most conspicuous naval operations of that year were the cruise of the *Providence*, Captain Rathburne, to the Bahamas; of the *Raleigh*, Captain Thompson, and the *Alfred*, Captain Hinman, from L'Orient; the *Virginia*, Captain Nicholson, on the American coast; of John Paul Jones in the *Ranger*, in British waters, and of Captain Barry in the *Raleigh*, in the waters of the Atlantic ocean. The *Alfred* was captured in March, 1778, by two British war-ships, in European waters, and at about the same time the *Virginia* was lost in Chesapeake Bay. Early in April (1778), Jones appeared in British waters for the first time. The *Ranger* was an inferior vessel, and yet her commander, after making some important captures in the British Channel, undertook the bold task of seizing the English ship-of-war *Drake*, lying in the harbor of Carrickfergus, Ireland. He failed. Then he sailed to the English coast, entered the port of Whitehaven, seized the forts, spiked the cannon, and, setting fire to a ship in the midst of a hundred other vessels, departed. The flames were extinguished and the shipping was saved; and from that day to this, the name of Jones has been associated in the English mind with ideas of piracy and devastation, and he is called a "pirate" and "corsair" by English historians. His exploit spread terror along the British coasts, and produced a profound sensation throughout the kingdom.

Emboldened by this success, Jones proceeded to the coast of his native country (Scotland), cruised up and down between the Solway and the Clyde, and attempted the capture of the Earl of Selkirk, at his seat near the mouth of the Dec. The earl was the early friend of Jones's father; and beneath his majestic oak and huge chestnut trees our hero had played in his boyhood. He anchored the *Ranger* in the Solway at noon, and with a few men in a single boat, went to the wooded promontory on which the earl's fine mansion stood, where he learned

that his lordship was absent. Disappointed, he ordered his men back to the boat, when his lieutenant, a large and fiery man, proposed to carry away the plate of the earl, in imitation of English plunderers on the American coasts. Jones would not entertain the proposal. The memory of old associations forbade it. He was standing in the shadows of the old wood wherein he had enjoyed life in his childhood. From the hand of Lady Selkirk he had received nothing but kindness. Again he ordered his men back, but they and the lieutenant, eager for prize money, made his expostulations vain, and he ordered them to perform, what he deemed to be a mean robbery, with the greatest delicacy. The frightened Lady Selkirk delivered up the plate with her own hands; and when the marauders returned to the boat, they found Jones walking moodily among the old trees. He had laid his plans for the future. When the prizes of the *Ranger* were sold in the harbor of Brest, in May, he bought the plate and returned it to Lady Selkirk with a letter, in which he expressed his regret because of the annoyance she had suffered.

Late in April, Jones again appeared off Carrickfergus, when the *Drake* went out to give the *Ranger* battle. They fought more than an hour, when the *Drake*, much shattered, and forty of her men slain, surrendered. With this prize Jones went around Ireland and arrived at Brest on the 8th of May. Meanwhile D'Estaing had sailed for the Delaware, and his arrival made the American cruisers more active and bold. Captain Barry performed some notable exploits in the fall of 1778; and early in 1779, the *Alliance*, Captain Landais, sailed for France, bearing Lafayette, who went home to urge his king to send troops to America.

During the spring and summer of 1779, the American cruisers were very active. In March, the *Hampden*, a Massachusetts ship, had a severe fight with an English Indiaman, and was much damaged, but escaped capture. In April, Captain J. B. Hopkins, sailing on a cruise from Boston, captured sev-

eral British vessels bound for Georgia with supplies for Prevost. In June, Captains Whipple and Rathburne, in command of two ships, captured several British merchant-vessels under convoy of a ship-of-the-line. In a money point of view, this was one of the most successful enterprises of the war. The estimated value of eight of the prizes taken into Boston was over a million dollars.

While these events were occurring in the western hemisphere, the French monarch and the American commissioners joined in sending Paul Jones, with five vessels, from L'Orient to the coast of Scotland, at the middle of August. His flag-ship was the *Bon-Homme Richard*. Just as he was about to strike some armed British vessels, in the harbor of Leith, a storm arose, which drove his squadron into the North Sea. When the tempest subsided he drew near the land, and cruising along the coast of Scotland, he captured thirteen prizes by the middle of September. Consternation prevailed along the coast, and many people buried their plate to keep the "pirate's" hands from it.

Later in September, while the squadron of Jones lay a few leagues north of the mouth of the Humber, he discovered the Baltic fleet of forty merchantment, convoyed by the *Serapis*, a 44-gun ship, and the *Countess of Scarborough*, of 22 guns, stretching seaward from behind Flamborough Head. Here was a tempting prize for which he had sought. Jones signalled for a general chase, and all but the *Alliance*, Captain Landais, obeyed. The British vessels immediately prepared to defend the merchantmen; and while they and the *Richard* and *Pallas* were manœuvring for advantage, night fell upon the scene. The darkness did not restrain the impetuous Jones. At seven o'clock in the evening, the *Richard* was within musket-shot distance of the *Serapis*, when one of the most desperate naval fights ever recorded began. The wind was slack, and as the vessels were struggling for the weather-gauge, they came in contact. Their spars and rig-

ging were entangled, when Jones, at the head of his men, attempted to board the *Serapis*. After a sharp and close contest with pike, pistol and cutlass, he was repulsed, when Captain Pearson of the *Serapis*, who could not see the ensign of the *Richard*, called out: "Has your flag been struck?" Jones shouted, "I have not begun to fight yet."

The vessels now separated, and Jones attempted to lay his ship athwart the hawser of his enemy. He failed, and the wind brought the two ships broadside to broadside, the muzzles of the guns touching each other. Jones instantly lashed the ships together, and in that close embrace they poured their terrible volleys into each other with awful effect. From deck to deck of the entangled vessels the combatants madly rushed, fighting like demons. Very soon the *Richard* was pierced between wind and water with several 18-pound balls, and began to fill. The ten greater guns were silenced, and only three 9-pounders kept up the cannonade; but the marines in the round top of the *Richard* sent deadly volleys of bullets down upon the struggling Englishmen. Ignited combustibles were scattered over the *Serapis*; and at one time she was on fire in a dozen places. Some cartridges were ignited on her lower deck and blew up the whole of the officers and men that were quartered abaft the mainmast. At half-past nine, just as the moon rose in a cloudless sky, the *Richard* was discovered to be on fire, also, and a scene of appalling grandeur was presented. In the midst of smoke and half-smothered flame, and the incessant roar of great guns, men as furious as wounded tigers were seen struggling hand-to-hand for the mastery. At that moment a cry was raised on the *Richard*—"The ship is sinking!" A frightened gunner ran aft to pull down the American flag, when he found the halyards cut away. He cried, "Quarter, quarter!" until he was silenced by a blow from a discharged pistol which Jones hurled at his head. It fractured his skull, and sent him headlong down the gangway. "Did you ask for quarter?" shouted Pearson.

"Never!" replied Jones. "Then I'll give you none," answered the enraged Englishman; and the desperate fight went on more fiercely than before.

The situation of Jones was becoming, every moment, more critical, for his ship could not float much longer. Nothing appeared more hopeless than his prospect for victory. Yet he won it. The flames crept up the rigging of the *Serapis*, and by their glow and the full light of the moon, Jones saw that his double-headed shot had almost cut Pearson's mainmast in two. He hurled another shot upon it, until the tall mast reeled. Pearson saw his great peril, and striking his flag, surrendered to his really weaker foe. Enveloped in sparks and smoke, Pearson said, in a surly manner, as he hurriedly handed his sabre to Jones: "It is painful to deliver up my sword to a man who has fought with a rope around his neck." Jones courteously replied, as he returned the weapon: "Sir, you have fought like a hero, and I make no doubt your sovereign will reward you in the most ample manner." The king knighted Pearson. When Jones heard of it, he said: "Well, he deserves it; and if I fall in with him again, I'll make a lord of him."

The battle ceased after raging three hours. Fire was consuming both ships, and all hands turned to fighting the flames. They did so successfully. The vessels were soon disengaged, when the mast of the *Serapis*, which had been kept erect by the entangled spars and rigging, fell with a tremendous crash, carrying with it the mizzen-topmast. The *Richard* was damaged past recovery, and now settled rapidly. Every living person was transferred to the *Serapis*, and sixteen hours afterward the gallant *Bon Homme Richard* went down into the valleys of the North Sea.

The *Countess of Scarborough*, Captain Contineau, surrendered to the *Pallas* after an hour's fight, notwithstanding the treacherous Landais brought the guns of the *Alliance* to bear upon the latter as he had upon the *Richard*, pretending to have mistaken them, in the darkness, for the ships of the ene-

my. This brilliant victory was achieved on the night of the 23d of September. The Baltic fleet had taken shelter behind Flamborough Head. After tossing about on the Northern Sea ten days, Jones ran into the Texel, Holland, with his little squadron and prizes, only a few hours before eleven English ships-of-war that had been sent after him, appeared in the offing. A demand was made upon Holland to deliver up the prizes, and Jones and his men, to the English authorities. By adroit diplomacy, the States-General refused, without involving themselves in trouble with the British government; and Jones, instead of being conveyed to England as a "corsair," was put in command of the *Alliance*, and did good service for the Americans afterward. His fame spread through the civilized world. The French monarch gave him an elegant gold-mounted sword, bearing on its blade the words: "*Louis XVI, Rewarder of the Valiant Asserter of the Freedom of the Sea.*" He also created him a knight of the Order of Merit. Catharine of Russia conferred on him the ribbon of St. Anne; and from Denmark he received marks of distinction and a pension. The United States thanked him cordially, and eight years afterward gave him a gold medal.

The exploits of Jones exasperated and alarmed the British. They made even heavy line-of-battle-ships shy of him.

There was no more fighting in the North, but the scene shifted to the South, where the campaigns were active, and where the British showed better generalship than in the North. Early in the war a British attack had been made on Charleston, but it failed. Later Savannah was captured, and the State of Georgia fell into British hands. When in the winter of 1778-9 Clinton seized Savannah, a combined French and American force under General Lincoln besieged the city, but could not dislodge the British. An assault was made, but failed, with a terrible loss of life. In 1780 Clinton transferred the seat of war to the South and came with an army and captured Charleston.

Going back to New York, Cornwallis was left in command, with Lord Rawdon next in rank. Another prominent figure was Colonel Tarleton, who commanded the British cavalry. These three men acted with promptness and vigor. Gates, flushed with pride over his success in the North, was in command of the American army in South Carolina. It was not a well disciplined force, but might have done well under an able commander. Cornwallis met this army August 16, 1780, at Camden and routed it almost completely. It was the worst American defeat of the war. For the time this broke up organized resistance on the part of the Americans, but Generals Sumter and Marion, with small bodies of horsemen, continued to harass the British at every possible point. The daring of these men, the swiftness with which they would appear and as suddenly disappear, gained them the name of "swamp foxes." The British horsemen were too confident that they had put down all opposition. While many of the people were Tories, there were many patriots left, who continued the war. In October over 1,000 British went as far west as King's Mountain, in North Carolina. Here the Americans hastily gathered a force largely of mountaineer riflemen, who suddenly fell on the British and killed or captured them all.

Clinton attempted, by the aid of treason, to accomplish what he had failed to do by honorable warfare. The man who played the part of a traitor to the American cause on that occasion was General Benedict Arnold, a brave soldier, but a bad man. He was ambitious of personal renown, impulsive, rapacious, unscrupulous and vindictive; personally very unpopular, and seldom without a quarrel with some of his fellow-officers. The sad story of his treason has been so often told in detail, that we need to give it in general outline only.

Soon after the appointment to the military governorship of Philadelphia, in 1778, he married the beautiful daughter of Edward Shippen, a leading loyalist of that city. He lived in a style

which caused expenditure beyond his income, and to meet the demands of importunate creditors, he engaged in fraudulent and dishonorable official acts which caused the public to detest him. Finally serious charges of dishonesty were preferred against him before the Continental Congress; and a court-martial ordered by that body to try him, found him guilty. In their sentence they treated him most leniently. It was a simple reprimand by the commander-in-chief. That duty was performed by Washington in the most delicate manner; but the disgrace awakened vengeful feelings in the bosom of Arnold. These, operating with the pressure of debt, made him listen to the suggestions of a bad nature; and he let Sir Henry Clinton know that he preferred service in the British army to that in which he was engaged. Correspondence upon the subject, which was continued several months, was conducted on the part of Sir Henry, through the accomplished Major André, his adjutant-general, under an assumed name. So, also did Arnold assume a fictitious name; and on the part of both, the correspondence was carried on in commercial phraseology. Arnold agreed to ask for the command of the strong post of West Point and its dependencies, in the Hudson Highlands, and, if obtained, to betray it into the hands of Clinton. For this service Arnold was to receive the commission of brigadier in the British army and fifty thousand dollars in gold. It is asserted by Mr. Bancroft that "in the course of the winter of 1778-1779, he was taken into the pay of Clinton, to whom he gave on every occasion most material intelligence."

The nefarious plot had been made known to the British minister, and he and Clinton believed that its consummation would end the war. In the spring of 1780, Arnold took measures to secure for himself the command of West Point. He enlisted the sympathies and services in his behalf of General Schuyler, Robert R. Livingston and other leading patriots in New York, pretending that his wounds

would not permit him to do active service in the field, and that he was very anxious to serve his country. His professions of patriotism were so vehement that he deceived those men, and they united in recommending Washington to give him the important position. The latter had lost faith in Arnold's integrity, but could not believe him capable of treason to the cause. He finally yielded to the request of others more than to the dictates of his better judgment, and in August (1780) he placed Arnold in command of the Highland forts, with his headquarters at the house of Beverly Robinson (yet standing), opposite West Point. Then Arnold bent all his energies for the consummation of his treason, first requiring a personal interview with André, to make a definite arrangement about the terms of the bargain.

It was late in September before that personal interview was held. Washington, accompanied by Lafayette and Hamilton, crossed the Hudson at Verplanck's Point (where he was joined by Arnold), on his way to Hartford, to have his first personal conference with Rochambeau there. That was on the 18th. Arnold ascertained the time when they might be expected at West Point, on their return, and he resolved to bring the plot to a point ready for the final act before them. He immediately informed Clinton of the situation, and desired him to send André up the river to the *Vulture* sloop-of-war, then lying just above Teller's (now Croton) Point, to which a boat with a flag would be sent to convey the major to a selected place of meeting between midnight and dawn. Clinton embarked troops on the Hudson, with a pretext that they were bound for the Chesapeake. These he intended to lead in person against the Highland forts.

On the morning of the 20th André departed from Dobb's Ferry for the *Vulture*; but it was the second night after his arrival, when the flag appeared, borne by Joshua H. Smith, a resident near Haverstraw. André had been instructed by Clinton not to change his dress and not to take any papers

with him; so, with his regimentals, covered with a long surtout, he went ashore and met Arnold in bushes at the foot of Thorn Mountain, near Haverstraw, by the light of a waning moon. Dawn was approaching before the interview was ended; and the conspirators mounted horses which Arnold had provided, and rode to the house of Smith before the break of day. At sunrise, cannons were heard upon the river, and the *Vulture* was seen to fall down the stream, out of sight, to avoid the effects of artillery trained upon her at Teller's Point. This gave André uneasiness, for he would be compelled to return to New York by land.

The conference at Smith's house lasted several hours. It was agreed that Arnold should so distribute the garrison at West Point as to weaken it. When it should be known that the British troops were ascending the river, Arnold was to apply to Washington at Tappan for reinforcements; and after making a show of resistance, he was to surrender the post in time for Clinton to fall upon the approaching troops which might be led by the commander-in-chief in person. So, at one blow, Washington's army was to be ruined, and the important post to be seized by the enemy.

André received from Arnold a written statement of the condition of the Highland forts, and a pass for "John Anderson" (his assumed name) "to the White Plains and beyond." With the latter in his pocket and the former under his feet, in his boots, the young officer, having exchanged his scarlet uniform for a coat that belonged to Mr. Smith, buttoned his surtout up to his chin, crossed the river at the King's Ferry, and on horseback made his way toward New York on the east side of the Hudson. So far the plot had worked well. Knowledge of the conspiracy was yet locked in the bosom of a single American—the traitor himself. But difficulties soon arose. When the major had reached the vicinity of Tarrytown, sixteen miles from the strong British post at King's Bridge, and was riding in fancied security up the gentle

hill from Sleepy Hollow, he was suddenly confronted by three young militiamen—John Paulding, Isaac Van Wart and David Williams—who belonged to a party of seven who were out to prevent cattle being driven from the vicinity to the British lines and to arrest any suspicious characters on the highway. These young men were playing cards in the shadow of a wood by the roadside, when André appeared. Paulding, followed by his companions, stepped into the road, and presenting his bayonet ordered the well-dressed "gentlemanly traveler" to stop. André, supposing them to be Loyalists, said: "Gentlemen, I hope you belong to our party." "Which party?" asked Paulding. "The Lower party." Paulding answered misleadingly, "We do," when André said, "Gentlemen, I am a British officer, out in the country on particular business, and hope you will not detain me a minute." He then showed them his watch in token of his being an officer, when Paulding ordered him to dismount. Perceiving his mistake, André said: "My God! I must do anything to get along," and then showed them Arnold's pass. "Gentlemen," he said, "you had best let me go, or you will bring yourselves into trouble, for your stopping me will detain the general's business." He told them he was going to Dobb's Ferry to meet a person there from whom he expected important intelligence for Arnold. Paulding courteously said: "I hope you'll not be offended; we do not intend to take anything from you; there are many bad people on the road, and you, perhaps are one of them. Have you any letters?" He answered, "No." Then they took him into the bushes and searched him. André was dressed in a blue surtout, a claret-colored body-coat trimmed with lace; nankeen waistcoat and breeches; flannel underclothes, round hat and thread stockings and boots. They stripped him to his shirt, but found no papers on him; and they were about to let him go, when it was suggested that something might be concealed in his boots. He reluctantly obeyed an order to pull them off, when

the papers alluded to were found between his stockings and his feet. "This is a spy!" exclaimed Paulding. André offered them large bribes to release him. "Not for ten thousand guineas," said Paulding; and the three young men conducted their prisoner to Lieutenant-Colonel Jameson, who was in command of the nearest military post, at North Castle. Jameson, with amazing stupidity, resolved to send the prisoner to Arnold. Major Tallmadge, next in rank, suspecting the general of treachery, warmly remonstrated, when Jameson consented to confine the captive until he should receive orders from Washington or Arnold. He insisted upon writing a letter to Arnold informing him of the arrest of the prisoner. This was a fatal blunder, and led to great mischief.

That night the prisoner wrote a letter to Washington, frankly announcing his name and rank, and giving a truthful account of the whole affair. He gave the letter to Tallmadge, to read, who was astonished to find that the captive was Major André, adjutant-general of the British army. He was finally taken to the headquarters of the army at Tappan.

While these events were occurring, Washington was on his way from Hartford. On the morning of the 25th (September, 1780), he and his attendants left Fishkill before the dawn, and rode on with speed toward the Robinson house to breakfast with General and Mrs. Arnold. When near there, the chief turned down a lane to view a battery on the brink of the river, and told his young companions to go forward and he would soon join them. While they were at the table with the general, a messenger brought a letter to him from Jameson; but instead of announcing, as he expected he would, that a British armament was ascending the river, it told him of the arrest of Major André. His presence of mind did not forsake him. He told his guests that business of importance demanded his presence at West Point immediately. He ascended to his wife's chamber and sent for her. There,

in brief and hurried words, he told her that they must instantly part, perhaps forever, for his life depended upon his reaching the British lines as quickly as possible. Horror-stricken, the poor young creature, one year a mother but not two a bride, swooned and sank senseless upon the floor. Arnold dared not call for help, but kissing with lips blasted by words of guilt and treason, his boy then sweetly sleeping, he rushed from the room, mounted a horse belonging to one of his guests, and hastened to the river along a byway yet known as *Arnold's Path*. Then he entered his barge, and directed his six oarsmen to push out into the middle of the river and pull for Teller's Point. They were ignorant of his errand, and having their muscles stimulated by a promise of two gallons of rum, they rowed the little vessel swiftly down the stream to the *Vulture*. Having made himself known to the commander, Arnold rewarded his faithful men with the fate of prisoners instead of the promised beverage. Clinton, despising the traitor's meanness, set them at liberty when the *Vulture* arrived at New York.

Washington arrived at Robinson's house just after Arnold had left. No one there, excepting Mrs. Arnold in her chamber, knew of the traitor's flight. Supposing he had gone over to West Point, the chief crossed the river, and did not return until near noon. He was met near the landing-place by Hamilton, into whose hand a messenger from Jameson had placed the proof of Arnold's guilt—the papers taken from Andre's boots, and the major's letter to Washington. Efforts were immediately made to overtake the traitor, but he had four hours the start, and escaped, as we have observed. The fugitive's wife was crazed by the shock for several hours, and her condition excited the warmest sympathy of the chief and his attendants. She pressed her infant to her bosom and lamented his fate because of the conduct of his father. "All the sweetness of beauty, all the loveliness of innocence, all the tenderness of a wife, and all the fondness of

a mother," wrote Colonel Hamilton, "showed themselves in her appearance and conduct." They believed that she was entirely ignorant of his crime until it was revealed to her at the time of his flight.

Major André was tried at Tappan by fourteen general officers, found guilty, and hanged there on the 2d of October, 1780. He begged to be shot that he might die like a *soldier* and not as a *spy*. In a letter to Washington he pleaded with touching but manly earnestness for this boon.

The usage of both armies and the implacable demands of the military code toward a spy forbade a compliance with his wishes. The British officers, on all occasions, had been quick to hang American captives. We have seen how brutally they gibbeted young Nathan Hale; and scores of patriots in South Carolina had recently perished by the rope by order of Cornwallis, for no other offence than loving the service of their own country better than that of their oppressors. Every officer in the American army would gladly have exchanged André for Arnold, and efforts to accomplish that end were made, but failed. Arnold died in his bed twenty-one years afterward; while André, the more innocent victim of the wicked complot of Clinton and Arnold, perished on a gibbet four days after he was convicted.

Washington now sent General Greene, one of his most trusted officers, to take command in the South. With difficulty a small army was raised. It was officered admirably by Generals Daniel Morgan, "Light-Horse" Harry Lee and William Washington. These made one of the most remarkable campaigns in history. They won but a single victory of the first importance, and were several times defeated, but won the campaign. January 17, 1781, Colonel Tarleton fell on General Morgan at the Cowpens and was defeated and almost annihilated. The Americans had the smaller force and lost but twelve men killed. Greene next met Cornwallis at Guildford, North Carolina. It was a hard-fought battle, but Greene

had to retire. Cornwallis did not follow, but went to Virginia to recuperate. The moral effect of the campaign was favorable to the Americans. Greene was hard pushed by Cornwallis and had retreated northward until ready to fight, when he chose his own ground. Pretty soon Greene returned South and was defeated by Rawdon at Hobkirk's Hill and Eutaw Springs, but he so manœvered that he cleared the British out of the interior, and the campaign was a decided success. In Virginia Cornwallis found Arnold in command of a British force. He sent the traitor to New York, and took possession of Yorktown, which was of no possible use to him. For some reason not entirely clear, but with the idea he was obeying orders, he fortified the place, and he and Lafayette with a small army had played at hide and seek with each other. When Washington heard about Cornwallis' position, he feinted as if about to attack New York, but swiftly moved South and besieged Cornwallis with the aid of some French troops brought by Admiral De Grasse, who had been long cooped up in Newport, but had escaped. For the first time in the war the military odds were against the British, and escape was impossible. Cornwallis surrendered October 19, 1781, and the war was practically over.

Great was the exultation and joy of the Americans as the news of the surrender went from lip to lip throughout the Union. Lieutenant-Colonel Tighlman, one of Washington's aids, rode expressly to Philadelphia to carry the despatches of his chief announcing the joyful tidings to the Congress. It was midnight (October 23d) when he entered the city. Thomas McKean, then President of the Congress, resided on High Street, near Second Street. Tighlman knocked so violently at his door that a watchman was disposed to arrest him as a disturber of the peace. McKean arose, received the messenger with joy, and soon the glad tidings spread over the city. The watchmen proclaiming the hour, and the usual cry "All's well!" added "and Cornwallis is

taken!" That announcement, going out upon the frosty night air, called thousands from their beds. The old State House bell that sounded so clearly when independence was declared more than five years before, now rang out tones of gladness. Lights were seen moving in almost every house; and very soon the streets were thronged with men and women, all eager to know the details. It was a night of great joy in Philadelphia, for the people had anxiously waited for news from Yorktown. The first flush of morning was greeted with the booming of cannon; and at an early hour the Congress assembled and heard Charles Thompson read the despatch from Washington. That grave Senate could hardly repress huzzas while the Secretary read; and at its conclusion it was resolved to go in a body, at two o'clock in the afternoon, to the Dutch Lutheran Church, and "return thanks to Almighty God for crowning the allied armies of the United States and France with success." Six days afterward that body voted thanks and appropriate honors to Washington, Rochambeau and De Grasse and their officers, and resolved that a marble column should be erected at Yorktown with emblems of the alliance in commemoration of the event. The Congress also appointed a day for a grand thanksgiving and prayer throughout the Union, on account of the signal mark of Divine power. Legislative bodies, executive councils, city corporations and many private societies presented congratulatory addresses to the commanding generals and their officers; and from almost every pulpit in the land arose the voice of thanksgiving and praise, accompanied by the alleluiahs of thousands of worshipers before the altars of the Lord of Hosts.

The Duke de Lauzun bore the glad tidings to France, where he found the king and court rejoicing because of the birth of a dauphin, or heir to the French throne. The city of London petitioned the king to "put an end to the unnatural and unfortunate war."

Measures had meanwhile been taken by the Congress and the British govern-

ment to arrange a treaty of peace. The former appointed (September, 1782) four Commissioners for the purpose, that different States of the Union might be represented. These Commissioners were John Adams, of Massachusetts; John Jay, of New York; Dr. Franklin, of Pennsylvania, and Henry Laurens, of South Carolina, who were all in Europe at that time. The British government gave Mr. Oswald full power to treat for peace with these Commissioners. He had discussed the terms with Dr. Franklin, who assured him that independence, satisfactory boundaries and a participation in the fisheries would be indispensable requisites in a treaty. In July the British Parliament had passed a bill to enable the king to acknowledge the independence of the United States, and all obstacles in the way of negotiation were removed. The American Commissioners first named were joined by Laurens at Paris, where the negotiations were carried on. There, on the 30th of November, a preliminary treaty of peace, on the basis of independence, was signed by the American Commissioners, and Mr. Oswald without the knowledge of the French government. This was in violation of the spirit of the terms of alliance, by which it was understood (and the Commissioners had been so instructed) that no treaty should be signed by either party to the alliance without the knowledge of the other. Some of the Commissioners doubted the good faith of Vergennes, believing him to be swayed by Spanish influence; but he acted honorably throughout. Dr. Franklin, who never doubted him, removed the dissatisfaction in the mind of Vergennes, because of this affront, by a few soft words. In the meantime the States-General of Holland had acknowledged the independence of the United States by receiving John Adams as an ambassador from the Congress in April of that year; and on the 8th of October (1772) they concluded a treaty of amity and commerce with them. This was signed at the Hague by Mr. Adams and representatives of

the Netherlands. It was not ratified until January, 1783.

Coincident with these preparations for a solid national existence, was the adoption of a device for a great seal—the symbol of sovereignty and authority—for the inchoate republic. A committee for the purpose was appointed on the afternoon of the 4th of July, 1776. That committee and others, from time to time, presented unsatisfactory devices. Finally, in the spring of 1782, Charles Thompson, the Secretary of Congress, gave to that body a device largely suggested to John Adams by Sir John Prestwich, of England, which was made the basis of a design adopted on the 20th of June, 1782, and which is still the device of our great seal. It is composed of a spread-eagle, the emblem of strength, bearing on its breast an escutcheon with thirteen stripes alternate red and white. In his right talon he holds an olive-branch, emblem of peace, and in his left, thirteen arrows, emblems of the thirteen States, ready for war if it should be necessary. In his beak is a ribbon bearing the legend: *E Pluribus Unum*—"many in one"—many States making one nation. Over the head of the eagle is a golden light breaking through a cloud surrounding thirteen stars forming a constellation on a blue field. On the reverse is an unfinished pyramid, emblematic of the unfinished republic, the building of which is still going on. In the zenith is an All-seeing Eye surrounded by light, and over the eye the word *Annuat Coeptis*—"God favors the undertaking." On the base of the pyramid, in Roman numerals, the date 1776, and below the words: *Novus ordo seclorum*—"a new series of ages." So the Americans showed their faith in the stability of the structure whose foundations they had laid. Only the side on which the eagle and escutcheon appear has ever been used.

Peace hath her troubles no less than war. When the war was over the situation of the country was not what might have been supposed. There was practically no government. During the

war the old self-constituted Continental Congress had been succeeded by the Congress under the Articles of Confederation which had been adopted as a constitution. This Congress was composed of inferior men and was subject to limitations which made legislation well nigh impossible. Each State had but a single vote, while two-thirds of the States were necessary to pass important bills. It had no power to raise money except by borrowing if it could, issuing scrip which became worthless, or asking the States, which did not result very satisfactorily. Congress could levy no taxes and had no coercive power. Little wonder then that poor provision was made for the army, that it was poorly fed, worse clad and almost never paid! Small wonder that officers complained when no provision was made for them, or that the men sometimes mutinied. It was due to Washington's skill, forbearance and moral influence, the patriotism and bravery of his officers and men that victory came, and not to Congress, which was almost useless.

Indeed, so critical was the situation, so necessary was some strong government, that Washington's army would have made him King, a suggestion he would not consider. Finally Congress made some provision in the way of land grants for the Army, but many of that patriot band had little other than glory as a reward. In the eight years many troops had been enlisted, but most of them served only a very short time during some emergency. It was seldom that Washington had 12,000 men in one army. The country had prospered in spite of the war which, except for the ravages of Indians on the frontier, was humanely conducted. New Jersey and Pennsylvania saw most of the fighting, but business was not greatly interrupted.

When the war was over, the States drifted back into their old ways before the war. Each had its own laws. Strong jealousies and rivalries existed which were manifested in legislation. Each State had its own tariff law and discriminated against its neighbors.

Each State was in debt for the war. Congress was in debt for the loans it had made abroad, and borrowed money to pay the interest. Large sums had been borrowed at home, largely through the efforts of Robert Morris, but no interest was paid on this, while the Continental currency was practically worthless.

In the meantime, Great Britain did not evacuate the Western forts, nor did the States pay debts to British citizens contracted before the war. Congress was in desperate straits. The Confederation was only formed by promises of all the States to give up to the Government the lands west of the Alleghanies, north of the old Ohio, but the Government was slow in making any government for them. In 1784, Jefferson drew up a plan, but it failed, and he went to Paris as our minister. In 1787, the so-called Ordinance was passed, which provided for the government of the Northwest Territory and its ultimate division into States. This law provided for limited self-government under national control, and forever prohibited slavery in that section. On this general basis, excepting the slavery clause, all our territories were erected up to 1898.

It seems paradoxical, but it is true, that the first years of peace and freedom of the States were in many respects less satisfactory than before the war began. There were quarrels over which State had done the most in the war, claims of offsets against demands by Congress, crimination and recrimination over various points, until that body became so powerless that sometimes it could not actually raise enough money to buy stationery. Thoughtful men soon saw that something must be done right speedily, or else we would either have a civil war or would fall a prey to foreign attack. In 1754, twenty years before the struggle, Franklin had published the picture of a serpent cut into thirteen parts, with the superscription: "Unite or die." This advice or warning was now quite as imperative. If the Articles of Confederation had been stronger our history

might have been shorter. They being so weak, a stronger government became necessary.

Maryland, as we have seen, had troubles about her boundaries, but now she had troubles of a different sort. On the south she was bounded by the Potomac, while the Susquehanna came down from the north. It was very difficult to settle on trade regulations under these circumstances, as opportunities for smuggling and cheating were plenty. There was a question also as to who could rightfully control the mouth of the Potomac, while Pennsylvania was in danger of having the mouth of the Susquehanna closed entirely. In consequence the three States were about to send Commissioners to discuss the matter when Virginia invited delegates from all the States to discuss trade and commerce. Neither New England nor the far South took any interest in the matter, but delegates from five States met at Annapolis in 1786. They declared in favor of a convention at Philadelphia the next year to amend the Articles of Confederation, to which Congress agreed after some hesitation.

The Constitutional Convention of 1787 marks the turning point in our history. But for its work we might be now in as deplorable condition as South America. It was a common danger that once more forced the former colonies to act. The Convention was called to amend the Articles of Confederation—it adopted a new constitution entirely. Indeed, amendment had several times proved impossible, as it required a unanimous vote of all the States. Twice Rhode Island and once New York had prevented the adoption of absolutely necessary amendments to enable the Congress to raise money. In consequence every State did practically as seemed good in its own eyes. Connecticut laid claim to Northeastern Pennsylvania and was driven out by force. In Massachusetts the so-called Shay's Rebellion, in favor of paper money had necessitated raising an army. It was hard to collect debts in distant States, and all sorts of foolish

legislation was indulged in, until it was seen that ruin or regeneration must follow.

Fortunately the States sent delegations of their ablest men. Not since the Continental Congress of 1776 had so many strong men been gathered together. From Massachusetts came Caleb Strong, Nathaniel Gorham, Elbridge Gerry and Rufus King. From New York, Alexander Hamilton, John Lansing and Robert Yates but the two latter left the convention and did not sign. From Delaware Gunning Bedford, Jr., George Read and John Dickinson. From Pennsylvania, Jared Ingersoll, Robert Morris, Thomas Mifflin, James Wilson and Benjamin Franklin, the wisest man of all. From Virginia, George Washington, James Madison, Edmund Randolph and George Mason. From New Jersey, William Paterson and Jonathan Dayton. From North Carolina, William Blount and Alexander Martin. From South Carolina, Pierce Butler, John Rutledge, Charles Pinckney and Chas. C. Pinckney. From Georgia, William Houston and Abraham Baldwin. From Connecticut, Roger Sherman and Oliver Ellsworth. From Maryland, Daniel Carroll and James McHenry. From New Hampshire, John Langdon and Nicholas Gilman. Rhode Island was not represented. The above are only the leading delegates from the States, but they sufficiently indicate the high quality of the whole. The Convention met in Philadelphia, May 25, 1787, with at first only seven States represented; it did not complete its work until September 17, and all its sessions were secret. George Washington was elected President, and it was in great measure due to the certainty that he would be the first Executive of the country that the Convention was finally adopted.

It was soon developed that there was a marked division of opinion among the delegates as to the nature of the new frame of government. The larger States in population, such as Virginia, Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, wanted a strong Central Government.

Small States, like New Jersey and Delaware, preferred to have the general plan of the Articles of Confederation remain. It was soon agreed to divide all powers of government between executive, legislative and judicial bodies. But here harmony ceased. Some wanted a single and some a plural executive. Some wanted a single and some a dual legislature. Some wanted only States represented, some wanted the population, some the wealth and some both wealth and population as bases of representation. The final agreement was that the lower house should be based on population and the upper on the States which were all accounted equal. This was the first compromise, but it involved another. The States of South Carolina and Georgia wanted all slaves enumerated; the Northern States wanted them ignored. A compromise was effected by counting three-fifths of the negroes.

Trade regulations caused great discussion, and it was long ere a compromise was agreed on whereby no export duties were to be laid, while the importation of slaves was permitted until 1808. Congress was allowed to control navigation laws, and fugitive slaves were returnable to their owners. The question of State representation and slavery being settled, the Constitution was finally evolved and signed by members from all the States, but not by all of them. Congress referred the Constitution to the various States, who called conventions to consider it. Delaware led the way and Pennsylvania and New Jersey soon followed. Georgia and Connecticut ratified in January, 1788, and Massachusetts in February. Then there was a lull, and fears were entertained that the necessary nine States could not be secured. In the interest of ratification a series of publications called "The Federalist" were issued which argued strongly the merits of the Constitution and have ever since held high rank among the commentaries on that great document. These papers were by Alexander Hamilton, James Madison and John Jay. The rise of political parties was

based on the issue of ratification. Those favoring the strong Central Government of the Constitution became known as Federalists. Those who objected to the powers ceded to the Federal Government and preferred to reserve more to the States, opposed ratification and were known as anti-federalists, and later formed the nucleus of the Republican, now called the Democratic party. It was not until June that New Hampshire, the necessary ninth State, ratified, but New York and Virginia soon followed. North Carolina waited more than a year, and Rhode Island was not admitted until 1790, by which time she was treated as a foreign power and was about to feel strong pressure.

It is noteworthy that the choice of President by an Electoral College was deliberately made after once proposing to have Congress perform the duty. No suggestion was made that the election be by the people. Such a proposition would have received no support. The Constitutional Fathers were not believers in democracy. They feared the masses, and believed that only the learned, the wise, the wealthy and the well born should govern. This is the less remarkable when we consider that in all the States except New Jersey the franchise was very considerably restricted. Property owners, or those paying a certain amount of rental, alone were allowed to vote for assemblymen, while the State Senates were chosen by a much more exclusive class of voters. The Fathers left the choice of a President to a body of electors, who were supposed to be the wisest men in the country and fit for the solemn duty of choosing a chief magistrate. It was intended that they should be unhampered, but this theory soon broke down.

The Congress was sitting at New York when it adopted the Constitution. It ordered that electors be chosen (in this case all by the Legislatures) on the first Wednesday in January, that they vote on the first Wednesday in February, and that the inauguration take place on the first Wednesday in March.

which on that day fell on the fourth. Washington was unanimously chosen President and John Adams was chosen Vice-President, but the inauguration did not take place until April 30, 1789. Nevertheless the term was held to begin on March 4, and has so continued, much to the distress of people who gather on that date to witness the ceremonies, for it is not infrequently that the weather is raw and inclement. The old Congress did not dissolve in state. It died for want of a quorum, and its decease was unlamented.

The history of the old Continental Congress is a remarkable one. At first it was a spontaneous gathering of patriotic representatives of thirteen colonies that stretched a thousand miles along the western shores of the Atlantic, who met to act for the common good. With unexampled boldness and faith, they snatched the sceptre of rule from their oppressing sovereign, and assuming imperial functions, created armies, issued bills of credit, declared

the provinces to be independent States, made treaties with foreign nations, founded an empire, and compelled their king to acknowledge the States, which they represented, to be independent of the British crown. The career of that Congress astonished the world with the brilliancy of the events achieved. A mightier and more stable power took the place of this conqueror, and immediately arrested the profound attention of the civilized nations. It was seen that its commerce, diplomacy, and dignity were no longer exposed to neglect by thirteen clashing legislative bodies, but were guarded and controlled by a central power of wonderful energy. Great Britain no longer thought of sending hither consuls, alone, to represent her, but placed a minister plenipotentiary near the republican court. Other European governments sent hither dignified diplomatic agents. We no longer exhibited the weakness of a *League of States*, but the power of a *Nation*.



ANGELICA PEALE CROWNING WASHINGTON

SIXTH PERIOD

ADMINISTRATIONS

WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION.

Washington was making the usual tour of his fields on the 14th of March, 1789, when Charles Thomson, the Secretary of the Continental Congress, arrived at Mount Vernon with a letter from John Langdon, the *pro-tempore* president of the United States, announcing the election of the illustrious farmer to the Presidency of the republic. Washington accepted the office and made immediate preparations for the journey to the seat of government. Toward evening, accompanied by his favorite body-servant, Billy, he left Mount Vernon and rode rapidly toward Fredericksburg, to visit his mother, then past eighty years of age and suffering from an incurable disease. The interview was a touching one. When he was about to leave, the son promised the mother, that so soon as public business would allow, he would hasten to Virginia to see her. "You will see me no more," said the aged matron; "my great age and the disease which is rapidly approaching my vitals warn me that I shall not be long in this world." The dutiful son stooped and kissed her, as she sat in her arm-chair, when she took his brawny hands in her attenuated ones and said: "Go, George; fulfill the high destinies which Heaven appears to assign to you; go, my son, and may that Heaven's and your mother's blessing be with you always." They never met again on the earth. When Washington returned to Virginia, his mother's body was in the grave. She died in August, 1789, at the age of eighty-two years.

On the morning of the 6th of April, Washington left Mount Vernon for New York, accompanied by Mr. Thomson and Colonel Humphreys. Every-

where on his journey he was greeted by demonstrations of the most profound respect and reverence. At Gray's Ferry, on the Schuylkill, near Philadelphia, a triumphal arch had been erected and covered with laurel branches. As Washington passed through it, Angelica Peale, a daughter of the artist, Charles Wilson Peale—a child of rare beauty, concealed among the foliage—let down an ornamented civic crown of laurel which rested on the head of the Patriot. This incident drew from the multitude loud huzzas, and shouts of "Long live George Washington! long live the Father of his Country!" filled the air.

At Elizabethtown Point, Washington was met by a committee from each House of Congress, and civil and military officers. They had prepared a magnificent barge for his reception, manned by thirteen pilots in white uniforms. In this the President-elect was conveyed to New York.

On the 30th of April, Washington was inaugurated President of the republic. The ceremony took place in the open gallery of the old City Hall (afterward called Federal Hall), in the presence of a vast multitude. The oath of office was administered by Robert R. Livingston, then chancellor of the State of New York. Near them were John Adams, who had been chosen Vice-President; George Clinton, Governor of New York; Philip Schuyler, John Jay, General Knox, Ebenezer Hazard, Samuel Osgood and other distinguished men. The Chancellor exclaimed, "It is done!" and then turning to the people he shouted, "Long live George Washington, the first President of the United States." That shout was echoed and re-echoed by the multitude, when the President and the members of Congress retired

to the Senate Chamber, where Washington pronounced a most impressive inaugural address.

The new government entered upon its duties under the keen scrutiny of a jealous opposition, and an ever-watchful democracy which regarded with alarm every aspect of aristocracy to be found in the new order of things.

Washington was anxious to so regulate his intercourse with the public at large, that he might secure dignity for the office and order for his own comfort and the public good. Wishing to give his time to public affairs, he resolved at the outset not to return any visits. To prevent being overrun with mere callers, he appointed the hour between three and four o'clock each Tuesday for the reception of gentlemen. He met ladies at the receptions given by Mrs. Washington, who also had stated times for the ceremony.

Even before the inauguration of the President, Congress began in earnest the great work of putting the machinery of the new government into harmonious and vigorous action. The first and most important duties to which they were called were the devising of a revenue system—for the public treasury was empty—and establishing a national judiciary as a co-ordinate branch of the national government. Two days after the votes of the Presidential electors were counted, Mr. Madison, to whom the leadership in the House of Representatives was conceded, brought forward a plan for a temporary system of imports, to be based upon one proposed by the Continental Congress. He was decidedly favorable to free trade; but the wants of the public treasury and the impossibility to obtain reciprocal action on the part of other governments, made him consent to and propose a tariff. Accordingly the first act of importance (being numerically the second) was one laying the duties on enumerated articles to raise money and for "the protection of manufactures." The duties were low, there was a considerable free list, and a discrimination was made in favor of goods imported in American bot-

toms. The debates on this bill were practically the same that have been repeated ever since. There were those who believed in protection; there were those who believed only in a revenue measure, and there were those who were against the theory of protection, but saw to it that industries in their own localities were protected.

Soon after the inauguration of Washington, the House having made provisions for raising a revenue, turned their attention to a reorganization of the Executive Departments. Those of the old Congress were still in operation, and were filled by the incumbents appointed by that body. The Department of Foreign Affairs, established in 1781, was incorporated with one for Home Affairs, and was called the Department of State, having charge not only of all foreign negotiations, and all papers connected therewith, but also the custody of all papers and documents of the old Congress, and all engrossed acts and resolutions of the new government which had become laws; also the issuing of all commissions for civil officers. The Treasury Department was continued substantially on the plan established in 1781. It was the duty of its chief officer to digest and propose plans for the improvement and management of the public revenue; to superintend the collection of the same; to execute services connected with the sale of public lands; to grant warrants on the treasury for all appropriations made by law; and to report to either House of Congress as to matters referred to him or apertaining to his office. Under him were subordinate officers—a controller, an auditor, a register, and a treasurer. The chief of the Department of State was called Secretary of State, and of the Treasury Department, Secretary of the Treasury.

The Department of War was organized very much upon the plan adopted in 1781, and its head was called Secretary of War. He was also intrusted with the superintendence of naval as well as military affairs, the material of the united service then being limited.

Not a single vessel of the Continental navy remained; and the military establishment consisted of only a single regiment of foot, a battalion of artillery, and the militia which the President might call out for the defence of the frontiers. There was a wholesome dread of a standing army. The Post-office Department was continued on the plan of Dr. Franklin, the first Postmaster-General appointed by the Continental Congress. Franklin had been succeeded by his son-in-law, Richard Bache, and he, in turn by Ebenezer Hazard, who then held the office. A Secretary of the Navy was not appointed until 1798. The Postmaster-General did not become a cabinet officer until 1829, the first year of President Jackson's administration.

While the House of Representatives were engaged with the subject of revenue and the Executive Departments, the Senate was busy in perfecting a plan for national judiciary. A bill drawn by Oliver Ellsworth, of Connecticut, chairman of a committee appointed for the purpose, was, after considerable discussion and some alteration, passed, and was concurred in by the other House. By its provisions, the judiciary was to consist of a Supreme Court, having one Chief Justice and five Associate Justices, who were to hold two sessions annually at the seat of the national government. Circuit and district courts were also established, which had jurisdiction over certain specified cases. Each State in the Union was made a district, as were also the territories of Kentucky and Maine. With the exception of these two, the districts were grouped into three circuits. An appeal from these lower courts to the Supreme Court was allowed, as to points of law, in all civil cases when the matter in dispute amounted to two thousand dollars. The President was authorized to appoint a marshal for each district, having the general powers of a sheriff, who was to attend all courts and was authorized to serve all processes. Provision was also made for a district attorney in each district to act for the

United States in all cases in which the national government might be interested. That organization, with slight modifications, is still in force.

The next important business that engaged the attention of Congress during its first session was the consideration of amendments to the national Constitution. The subject was brought forward by Mr. Madison, in conformity to pledges given to his State (Virginia), which was opposed to the Constitution without certain amendments. These were referred to a committee, which consisted of one member from each State. That committee finally reported, and after long debate and various alterations, twelve articles were agreed to and submitted to the people of the several States for ratification or rejection. Only ten were ratified in the course of the next two years. Two other amendments were afterward made, and these were the only ones adopted until the period of the late Civil War.

The national debt was a subject that demanded the earnest attention of Congress. Hamilton's views were by many believed to be fanciful, but he was prepared to demonstrate that they were feasible. He proposed to fund all the debt and interest at par, to establish a national bank, which should become the fiscal agent of the Government, and levy an internal revenue tax to make up the deficiency in revenue. Strange as it may seem, there was the bitterest opposition on the part of some States to being relieved from debt. Moreover, the domestic debt which it was proposed to refund at par, had long been at a heavy discount, and few of the bonds were in the hands of the original owners. Many wanted these scaled down, but Hamilton was firm for keeping the national pledge, and won.

Interlaced with this proposition was one to locate the Federal Capital according to its Constitutional permission. New York, Philadelphia and Baltimore wanted the honor, while Southern men wanted a site on the Potomac chosen. Germantown, then a

suburb of Philadelphia, was once almost selected, but the debt matter got mixed up with it, and finally, by Jefferson's aid, a compromise was effected by which Philadelphia was made the temporary Capital, the Potomac site, where now stands the Capital City, was chosen as the permanent Capital, and Southern votes supported the assumption of the State war debt. This was a fine piece of log-rolling, and the only time that Jefferson and Hamilton worked together. At the next session Hamilton succeeded in getting a charter for his National Bank, with \$10,000,000 capital, but the charter was to run only twenty years. A tax on spirits was laid which soon had important consequences. The slavery question was injected into this Congress by petitions of Quakers in favor of emancipation. There were some earnest debates on the subject, but the House resolved that the States alone could deal with the subject. South Carolina and Georgia were largely responsible for the maintenance and growth of slavery. It soon became extinct in all the States north of Maryland. Virginia was seriously considering emancipation, but could not solve the problem. But for the invention of the cotton gin, slavery might have died out in the South. Certainly the institution would have been milder than it finally became. But for Georgia and South Carolina some project looking toward gradual emancipation would probably have been placed in the Constitution.

The third and final session of the First Congress at Philadelphia developed differences of policy which gave the trend of future political parties. Alexander Hamilton was the leader of the Federalists, and his policy of protection, bounties, national bank, and strong federal control was the platform of his followers. Jefferson was the leader of the opposition, who regretted assumption, objected to the National Bank, and feared the protective and concentrating policy of Hamilton. The administration won most of its measures, but Madison was no longer its leader in the House, as he

veered over to Jefferson's views. The financial condition of the country had vastly improved, our national credit was high at home and abroad, confidence in business was restored, and Hamilton was justified by the results of his policy. There was opposition to the excise tax in the West, but it culminated later.

The most serious trouble was with the Indians, west of the Alleghenies. The trend of emigration had been so great that Kentucky was admitted in 1792 as a State along with Vermont (1791). What is now Ohio was being settled, but the savages had committed such ravages that it was necessary to suppress them with a strong hand. The regular army was small—indeed, it has never been sufficiently large for the emergencies that have so often arisen. To General Harmar was confided the task, in 1790, of restoring order, but he underestimated the task. The British posts were still held in defiance of the Treaty of Paris, and from them the Indians received material and moral support. Harmar was badly worsted at the Maumee, in October, 1790, by Little Turtle, largely by the sudden flight of the raw militia. Another expedition was determined on and Gen. Arthur St. Clair, Governor of the Northwest Territory, was chosen to lead it. Washington, who was skilled in frontier warfare, warned St. Clair of the nature of his task, and bade him beware of surprise. St. Clair was a good officer, but old and gouty. Most of his troops were undisciplined militia from the West, and he had great difficulty in getting together anything like a suitable force. In September, 1791, about 2,000 regulars and 1,000 militia started from near the present city of Cincinnati for the headwaters of the Wabash, building a line of forts as they progressed through the wilderness. The journey was slow, and by November desertions had reduced the little army to about 1,400 men. Straggling along with improper discipline, the army reached the headwaters of the Wabash, not far from the scene of Harmar's defeat, when they

were suddenly set upon (November 4, 1791) by Little Turtle and his braves, and cut to pieces. St. Clair fought nobly, but the Indians were in a strategic position behind trees and logs, so that they were not easily attacked. General Butler, his second in command, was heroic in his efforts but fell in battle. The battle raged for three hours before the flight began with a remnant of survivors. Over 600 officers and men were killed and 250 wounded. The rout was complete.

When Washington heard of the disaster his rage knew no bounds. For a few moments he gave vent to his temper, which at such times was terrible. Then he regained composure and determined to turn defeat into victory. The new expedition was placed in command of General Anthony Wayne, of Pennsylvania. Wayne and Greene were the only two Americans aside from Washington who had come out of the recent war with reputations of the first rank. Both were soldiers of the highest order, and would have won honors in any field. Wayne was the greater genius, though Greene may have excelled him as a strategist. The only other General of the war who developed genius was the traitor Benedict Arnold, whose military sagacity and courage were ruined by his moral depravity. In 1793, Wayne started from Pittsburg via Fort Washington (Cincinnati) for the Indian country. In 1794 he advanced to the Maumee, not far from Toledo, and fell upon the Indians, August 20th, whom he defeated with terrible slaughter. The Indian opposition was broken forever in this section. All the chiefs sought for peace, gave up their captives, and the rich country was rapidly settled by a prosperous people. In this campaign Wayne showed all the qualities of a great general. He kept all details under his own eye, enforced discipline, kept ever on the alert, so that he gained the name of "the General who never sleeps." His winter quarters after the battle now bears the historic name Fort Wayne, one of the thriving cities of Northern Indiana.

The federal city chosen by Washington, on the banks of the Potomac, originally included a portion of Virginia, which was later ceded again to that State. On the hills above the river where Washington had encamped his army in the Braddock campaign, the new capital was located. Owners of the land gave one half their ground to the Government, and sold what else was needed at a reasonable rate. One half the territory was given up to streets and parks under the wise direction of Major L'Enfant, who provided for a great city in the future which could be beautifully adorned as well as made strategically defensible from the leading hill tops. It is, however, within the memory of the present generation that Washington became a beautiful, well ordered, well paved and properly adorned city.

The period of the First Congress was one of general satisfaction, but during that of the Second the storm of partisanship burst. The new National Bank, chartered for twenty years, had been launched with great success, but it encountered the fiercest opposition. The excise tax made trouble on the frontier. Hamilton was busy pushing his schemes for concentration, while Jefferson was his open opponent, though both sat at the same executive board. Both were among the most useful of American citizens, each was actually modified in action by the other, but they agreed on nothing. Hamilton was brilliant, original, forceful, domineering, and self-confident. He was pro-British in his views, and a theorist in political philosophy, but bold in action. Jefferson was also brilliant, but facile, secretive, ruded with a plastic touch, and was greatly influenced by his residence in France when democracy was being elevated to the gods before being turned into anarchy. Of all our statesmen Hamilton was the most original in constructive legislation. He fought for his views, generally right, but with too little regard for the means employed, so that he was obliged to purge himself of a false charge of fraudulent official conduct.

Hamilton was the friend of rich men, but never gained a dollar by his official position, though it was charged that his friends grew rich. Jefferson was never accused of enriching himself by official position, and died poor, but he used the patronage of his office to injure Hamilton. The result of this quarrel was that eventually both left the Cabinet after inducing Washington, much against his will, to accept a second term.

Before this term ended, however, the French Revolution took place and for a time this country was wild with enthusiasm for the people that had helped us in our time of trial and had now erected a democracy. Washington did not share in the enthusiasm of Jefferson, and the latter soon found that the French ideas of liberty, equality and fraternity were not those which in theory he had commended. In 1793, Genet, the French Minister from the new Republic, arrived at Charleston and proceeded North more as a sovereign than an ambassador. Assuming that we would take up arms at once for France, he gave commissions right and left, and was received with enthusiasm until he reached Philadelphia, where news of the excesses of the Directory had proceeded him. In a short time he was denouncing and defying Washington for his dignified attitude of neutrality. This latter course brought the people to their senses. Genet was soon discredited here and recalled by the Directory, but that body had gotten into such an unconquerable habit of decapitating those who displeased them that Genet remained and married an American heiress.

Washington's second term was full of disappointments. During most of it he was obliged to forsake his dignified position of independence and become an avowed Federalist. He was maligned as almost no man in our history. It almost broke his heart, for he had been pure in thought and honorable in action, yet he had not escaped calumny. Edmund Randolph became Secretary of State, while William Bradford, of Pennsylvania, took the At-

torney-Generalship. Oliver Wolcott, of Connecticut, became Secretary of the Treasury somewhat later, and Timothy Pickering, of Pennsylvania, became Secretary of War and later Secretary of State. All these changes were gradual.

The First Congress was strongly with the administration, Frederick A. Muhlenberg, of Pennsylvania, being Speaker. The Second was Federalist and chose Jonathan Trumbull (Brother Jonathan) as Speaker. The Third had veered round to the party of Jefferson, known as Republicans, and Muhlenberg was once more Speaker. In the latter Congress the Senate was very close, and the Federalists used their slight advantage to refuse a seat to Albert Gallatin, just chosen from Pennsylvania, on the technical ground that he had not been long enough a citizen of the country. Gallatin was a Swiss, but had lived here since boyhood. Settling in Western Pennsylvania, he soon came into prominence and became one of the most useful American citizens of his time, serving in many capacities and living to a green old age. He was soon elected to the House, where he injured the Federalists far more than he could have done in the Senate.

The chief danger confronting the people was the insolent and aggressive position of Great Britain. That country had not carried out its obligation to abandon the forts in our territory, where the Indians received most of their support, nor had it permitted us that freedom of trade which our sovereignty entitled us to. Moreover, she had a habit of seizing on any persons she choose to claim as her own citizens and impress them into her navy. Included among these were many American citizens. Protests were useless, and we soon came to the situation that we must go to war or acknowledge King George as our suzerain. This situation was complicated by the beginning of the wars between France and the rest of Europe, which lasted for twenty-two years with brief intervals. Our shipping was in danger of being ruined. The Federalist party gener-

ally sided with Great Britain hoping for an accommodation. The Republicans sympathized with France but were doubtful as to a policy. In this dilemma Washington sent Chief Justice John Jay on a special mission to Great Britain to negotiate a new treaty. He arrived at London in 1794 and after some delay negotiated a treaty that was far from satisfying the wishes of the administration. The British posts were to be evacuated, the Mississippi was to be open to both countries, we were to pay certain damages claimed, the northern boundary was to be rectified, while Great Britain was to pay for certain American vessels recently seized. The only trade rights secured were very meager ones with the West Indies, under restrictions that were practically of no value. This was a stingy treaty and the Senate ratified it by a bare two-thirds necessary vote. As an appropriation was necessary the House had to bring in a bill and here the opposition was intense. Jay was reviled and execrated to an extent that now seems almost impossible. The treaty would have failed but for one man. Fisher Ames, of Massachusetts, was the first of Congressional orators. He was ill, believed he was on his deathbed, but so anxious to avert war that he came to the House and in a speech of the most impassioned imagery and touching pathos, besought the House to avert war, which was the only alternative. As one about to sink to the grave, he begged Congress not to permit the indiscriminate horrors on the frontier, when women and children would be a prey to the savages. This turned the scale and the treaty was saved by a close vote. The treaty was not satisfactory and it was not long before new friction arose which finally culminated in war.

The other important event of this administration was a domestic one. In Western Pennsylvania the people forcibly resisted the collection of the excise tax and brought on the Whisky Rebellion—so-called. This rebellion was not only against what was esteemed a tax on a necessity, but be-

cause suits arising out of the subject were triable in Philadelphia, which caused enormous trouble and expense. In 1794 the federal authorities were forcibly resisted in Western Pennsylvania and Washington immediately took measures to restore order. An army of 15,000 men was called for and the response was immediate. No resistance was offered and the opposition quieted down. There were two convictions of crimes and Washington pardoned both.

The Fourth Congress was torn up over the Jay treaty and the rivalries between the friends of Hamilton and Jefferson. The Federalists had gained slightly in the Senate, but the Republicans still held the house. Muhlenberg was succeeded by William Dayton, of New Jersey, a Moderate. Congress was obliged to pay the Dey of Algiers \$1,000,000 to ransom some captives and agree to an indemnity of \$60,000 a year as guarantee against his pirate hordes and finally present him with a frigate. This humiliation was atoned for later.

The Presidential succession proved an exciting contest. Washington had positively refused to be considered and John Adams became the Federalist candidate, much to the chagrin of Hamilton. Jefferson was the Republican candidate, who, on his retirement (after leaving the Cabinet) had not lost his grip on public affairs. In those days many States chose their electors by Congressional districts, while in some the Legislature chose them. There was no fixed rule. Each elector voted for two persons without designating which was to be President. While electors were allowed to vote for whom they pleased, this was the only contest in which it was even alleged that any personal choice was exercised. The vote was so close that two electors carried the scale in favor of Adams. It was charged that they were elected in the interest of Jefferson. The Federalist candidate for the Vice-Presidency was Thomas Pinckney, of South Carolina, while Aaron Burr, of New York, was second choice of the Re-

publicans. Hamilton hoped that Pinckney's popularity in the South would be such that he might even get more votes than Adams and thus become President, but the scheme failed, though it produced a breach in the Federalist party. Jefferson was chosen Vice-President. It is pleasing to note that as the retirement of Washington drew near, partisan spirit vanished, and all looked up to the patriot sage with honor and appreciation. His farewell Message has ever since been a beacon light in our history.

JOHN ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION.

John Adams took the chair as chief magistrate of the republic, in the spring of 1797, with a powerful, energetic and disappointed political party in opposition. They lacked only two votes in the electoral college of giving the office to Adams's democratic rival, Thomas Jefferson, who became Vice-President.

The French Directory composed of five persons who had been installed executive rulers of France late in 1795. In the plenitude of their pride, when they heard that the people of the United States, refusing to bow to their dictation, had probably elected the opponent of their friend, Mr. Jefferson, they declared that until our government had redressed some alleged grievances of which they complained, no minister of our republic should be received by them.

James Monroe, a senator from Virginia, who had been sent to France as minister, in 1794, remained as such after the installation of the Directory. He had been received in a most theatrical manner, as he was properly regarded as the representative of the ultra sympathizers with the French revolutionists in America.

Having opposed Jay's treaty at the French republican court, Monroe was recalled by his government in 1796, and Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, of South Carolina, was appointed to fill his place. On Pinckney's arrival in France

late in the year with the letter of recall and his own credentials as minister, the Directory refused to receive him. Not only so, but after treating him with great discourtesy, the Directory peremptorily ordered him to leave France. He withdrew to Holland in February, 1797, and there awaited further orders from home. When Mr. Adams took the Presidential chair, the United States were without a diplomatic agent in France.

Disappointed by the failure of the "French party" to elect Mr. Jefferson President of our republic, the insolent Directory, after hearing of the result in the electoral colleges, determined to punish a people who dared to thwart their plans. In May, 1797, they issued a decree which was tantamount to a declaration of war against the United States. It not only authorized the capture of American vessels under certain conditions, but declared that any American found on board of a hostile ship, though placed there without his consent, by impressment, should be hanged as a pirate.

Almost simultaneously with the issuing of the French decree, an extraordinary session of Congress, called by President Adams to consider the foreign relations of our government, met at Philadelphia. The conduct of the Directory had produced a great revolution in public feeling in our country. The reaction strengthened the Executive arm and the administration party, and patriotic Democrats began to talk complacently of war with France, which then seemed inevitable. But a majority of the cabinet favored further attempts at negotiations; and the President, with the concurrence of the Senate, appointed John Marshall, a Federalist and afterward Chief Justice of the United States, and Elbridge Gerry, a Democrat and afterward Vice-President of the republic, envoys extraordinary to join Mr. Pinckney and attempt to settle all matters in dispute between the two governments, by diplomacy. After a session of little more than six weeks, Congress adjourned. They had provided for calling out eighty thousand

militia, creating a small naval force, and acts for preventing privateering.

In the meantime success had waited on French arms and French diplomacy almost everywhere. Bonaparte, who was making his victorious marches toward the Danube and the Carpathian Mountains, had compelled Austria to make peace with his government; and England, the most powerful of the enemies of France, seemed to be tottering to its fall, for the suspension of specie payment by the Bank of England had rudely shaken and weakened her financial power. It was at this flood-tide of the military and diplomatic conquests of France in October, 1797, that the American envoys reached that country and sought an audience with the French Directory. Their request was met by a haughty refusal, unless the envoys would agree to the humiliating terms of first paying into the exhausted French treasury a large sum of money in the form of a loan; by the purchase of Dutch bonds wrung from that nation by the French, and a bribe to the amount of \$240,000 for the private use of the five members of the French Directory! This proposition came semi-officially from Talleyrand, one of the most expert and unscrupulous political trimmers that ever lived. It was accompanied by a covert threat, that if the proposition was not complied with, the envoys might be ordered to leave France in twenty-four hours, and the coasts of the United States be ravaged by French frigates sent from St. Domingo. The envoys refused compliance, and the occasion gave Pinckney the opportunity to utter in substance the noble words: "Millions for defence, but not one cent for tribute." Finding their mission to be useless, the envoys asked for their passports. They were given to the two Federal envoys under circumstances which amounted to their virtual expulsion from the country, while Gerry was induced to remain. He, too, was soon treated with so much insolence and contempt by Talleyrand and his associates that he returned home in disgust to meet the indignation of his countrymen for consenting to re-

main. Gerry had held interviews with Talleyrand without the knowledge of his associates, and it was believed that his representation of the strength of the "French party" in the United States encouraged that minister to pursue the course he did.

Meanwhile the Directory had issued another decree, which effectually annihilated American commerce in European waters. This act, the indecent treatment of the envoys and the continued depredations of the French cruisers, aroused a vehement war-spirit in the United States. President Adams, in his first annual message to Congress (November 23, 1797), recommended preparations for war. In March, 1798, the President, in a special message, asked Congress to provide means for war. The request was promptly complied with. A provisional army of twenty thousand regular soldiers was voted, and provision was made for the employment of volunteers as well as militia; and then were made those provisions for a national navy already alluded to. The office of Secretary of the Navy was created, and Benjamin Stodert, of the District of Columbia, was the first to enter the cabinet as the head of the Navy Department, which he did at the close of April, 1798. Party-spirit disappeared in the National Legislature to a great degree, and the popular excitement against the opposition leaders in Congress became so intense, that some of the most obnoxious of them from Virginia sought personal safety in flight, under the pretence of needed attention to their private affairs.

Washington approved the war-measures of the government, and in July he was appointed by the President commander-in-chief of all the forces raised and to be raised, with the commission of lieutenant-general. Washington requested the appointment of his friend Alexander Hamilton, then forty-one years of age, as acting general-in-chief. For this purpose, Hamilton was commissioned the first major-general. Washington held a conference with all the general officers of the army at Philadelphia, in November (1798)

when arrangements were made for a complete organization of the regular forces on a war-footing. But from the beginning he believed that the gathering clouds, portending a fearful tempest, would pass away and leave his country unscathed by the lightning and the hail of war.

Events soon justified Washington's faith. The wily Talleyrand, ever ready to change his political coat, caused information to reach the United States government that the Directory were ready to receive advances from the former for entering into negotiations.

Without consulting his cabinet or the national dignity, President Adams nominated William Vance Murray, then the representative of the United States at the Hague, as minister plenipotentiary to France. Congress and the people were amazed, and the Senate determined not to confirm the nomination. No direct communication had been received from the Directory, and this advance after unatoned insults, seemed like cowardly cringing before a half-relenting tyrant. The President stoutly persisted for awhile, when he consented to the appointment of three envoys extraordinary, of which Mr. Murray should be one, to settle all disputes between the two governments. For this purpose Oliver Ellsworth and William R. Davie were appointed to join Mr. Murray, but they were not to proceed to Europe until assurances should be received from France of their courteous reception there. Such assurances came from Talleyrand, and in November, 1799, the two envoys sailed for France.

Fortunately for all parties concerned, a change occurred in the government of France in the month when the envoys departed from our shores. Bonaparte was made First Consul or supreme ruler of France for life.

It was at this crisis in the political affairs of France when the American envoys reached Paris. They were cordially received by Talleyrand, by order of the First Consul, and an amicable settlement of all difficulties was soon made. A convention was signed at

Paris on the 30th of September, 1800, by the American envoys and Joseph Bonaparte, C. P. E. Fluvien and Pierre L. Røederer, in behalf of France, which was satisfactory to both parties. The convention also made the important decision, in the face of the contrary doctrine avowed and practiced by the British government, that *free ships should make free goods*. Peace was established, the envoys returned home, and the provisional army of the United States was disbanded.

While the political events just recorded were in progress, war between the two nations actually began upon the ocean, although neither party had proclaimed hostilities. In July, 1798, the American Congress had declared the treaties between the United States and France at an end, and authorized American vessels-of-war to capture French cruisers. A marine corps was organized, and a total of thirty cruisers were provided for. Under the law for the creation of a navy, several frigates had been put in commission in 1797, but they were not ready for sea in the spring of 1798; but it was not long in the presence of impending war, before the *United States*, the *Constitution*, the *Constellation* and other war-vessels were out upon the ocean under such commanders as Dale, Barry, Decatur the elder, Truxton, Nicholson and Phillips. Decatur soon captured a French corsair (April, 1798); and the British and French authorities in the West Indies were greatly surprised by the appearance of so many American cruisers in those waters in the summer and autumn of 1798. At the close of the year, the American navy consisted of twenty-three vessels, with an aggregate armament of four hundred and forty-six guns.

It was at this time that the first of a series of outrages upon the flag of the republic was committed by a British naval commander, that finally aroused the people of the United States to a vindication of their honor and independence by an appeal to arms. The American cruiser *Baltimore*, Captain Phillips, in charge of a convoy of merchant ves-

sels from Havanna to Charleston, when in sight of Moro Castle fell in with a British squadron. The United States and Great Britain were then at peace, and Phillips did not expect anything from the commander of the squadron but friendship, when, to his surprise, three of the convoy were captured by the British cruisers. Phillips bore up alongside the British flag-ship to ask for an explanation, when he was informed by her commander that every man on board the *Baltimore*, who could not show a regular American protection paper, should be transferred to the British vessel. Phillips protested against the outrage; and when fifty-five of his crew were taken to the British flagship, he, under legal advice, surrendered his vessel with the intention of referring the matter to his government. Only five of the crew were detained by the British commander. These were impressed into the service of the royal navy, and the remainder were sent back. The *Baltimore* was released, and the British squadron sailed away with the three merchant-vessels as prizes.

This outrage—this practical application of the claims of the British government to the right of searching American vessels without leave and taking seamen from them without redress—lighted a flame of hot indignation throughout our republic. But, at that time, the American government, like that of England, was strongly influenced, if not controlled, by the mercantile interest which had become very potential. The American cabinet in their obsequious deference to Great Britain had actually instructed the naval commanders not to molest the cruisers of any nation (the French excepted) on any account—not even to save a vessel of their own nation. The pusillanimity of this policy was now aggravated by an act of flagrant injustice and cowardice on the part of our government, that made the cheeks of true patriots crimson with shame. Captain Phillips was dismissed from the navy, without trial, because he had surrendered his vessel without making a show of re-

sistance, and no notice was taken of the outrage by the British commander!

During the year 1799, the American navy was much strengthened by the launching and putting into commission of several new vessels. In February, the frigate *Constellation*, Commodore Truxton commanding, fell in with and captured the famous French frigate *L'Insurgente*, of 44 guns and 409 men, off the Island of Nevis, in the West Indies. The American and English press teemed with eulogies of Truxton.

At the beginning of February, 1800, Truxton, in the *Constellation*, gained a victory over the French frigate *La Vengeance*, of 54 guns and 500 men. The battle was fought on the 1st of February, off Guadaloupe. In consequence of the falling of the mainmast of the *Constellation*, the supporting shrouds of which had been cut away, the *Vengeance* escaped. For this exploit Congress gave Truxton a gold medal. *La Vengeance* would have been a rich prize. She had on board a large amount of merchandise and specie, and the governor of Guadaloupe and his family returning to France. The convention at Paris brought peace, and the navy of the United States was soon called into another field of service.

The action of President Adams in the nomination of envoys to France before official intimations from the Directory that negotiations were desirable had been received, caused very serious divisions in the Federal party. Hostile feelings already existing, were thereby intensified, and the speedy downfall of the Federal party, as a controlling power in the government, was charged to the errors of judgment and temper on the part of Mr. Adams. He had already become unpopular because of his obstinacy and personal strictures. Very vain and egotistical, he was sensitive and jealous. His judgment was often swayed by his vivid imagination. His prejudices were violent and implacable, and his honesty and frankness, which made him almost a stranger to policy and expediency, made him very indiscreet in his expressions of opinions concerning men and measures.

These characteristics made him an unfit leader of a great party. Persons who disagreed with him concerning measures of public policy, he regarded as personal enemies, and for this reason his feelings toward Hamilton were as bitter as ever were those of Jefferson. The consequence was that he was at variance with many of the leaders of the Federal party, who, regarding him as a Jonah, laid a plan to defeat his re-election to the Presidency—an event which they knew he earnestly desired should take place. The cunning Democrats fanned the flame of separation in the Federal party. Mr. Adams's political partisans succeeded in the scheme for his defeat; but they did no more. They defeated the Federal party. The Democratic candidate for President, Mr. Jefferson, was elected, with Aaron Burr as Vice-President. The controlling power of that party, in the government, was then lost forever, after a most useful existence of about ten years. The odium in which Adams's administration was held was in consequence of the passage of the *Alien and Sedition* Laws which he favored—laws which authorized the President to expel aliens from our country under certain conditions, and by which citizens might be punished by fine and imprisonment who might combine in opposing government measures, or who might resist the government in words, in a "false and scandalous manner." Hamilton deprecated the laws and wrote: "Let us not establish a tyranny. Energy is a very different thing from violence." He saw the danger, and wrote prophetically: "If we push things to the extreme, we shall then give to faction *body and solidity*."

In the closing month of the 18th century the inhabitants of the young republic were bereaved by the death of Washington.

On the 13th of December, 1799, Washington was exposed to a storm of sleet, and took cold. The malady increased in intensity, and before midnight the spirit of the Beloved Patriot took its flight

JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION.

In the summer and autumn of the year 1800, the seat of the national government was transferred from Philadelphia to the embryo city of Washington, on the banks of the Potomac and at the verge of a Maryland forest.

The City of Washington was laid out on a magnificent scale, in 1791, with broad avenues bearing the names of the several States of the Union radiating from the hill on which the Capitol was built, with streets intersecting them in such a peculiar way that they have ever been a puzzle to strangers. The cornerstone of the Capitol was laid by Washington, in April, 1793, with masonic ceremonies. Only the two wings were first built, and these were not completed until 1808.

The site for the city was a dreary one. At the time when the government was first seated there, only a path, leading through an alder swamp on the line of the present Pennsylvania Avenue, was the way of communication between the President's house and the Capitol. For awhile the executive and legislative officers of the government were compelled to suffer many privations there.

Mr. Jefferson began his administration on the 4th of March, 1801, under favorable auspices.

Mr. Jefferson indicated his policy, as follows, in a letter to Nathaniel Macon: "1. Levees are done away with. 2. The first communication to the next Congress will be, like all subsequent ones, by message, to which no answer will be expected. 3. The diplomatic establishment in Europe will be reduced to three ministers. 4. The compensation of collectors depends on you (Congress), and not on me. 5. The army is undergoing a chaste reformation. 6. The navy will be reduced to the legal establishment by the last of this month (May, 1801). 7. Agencies in every department will be revised. 8. We shall push you to the uttermost in economizing. 9. A very early recommendation has been given to the Postmaster-General to employ no

printer, foreigner, or Revolutionary Tory in any of his offices." Mr. Jefferson appointed James Madison, Secretary of State; Henry Dearborn, Secretary of War; and Levi Lincoln, Attorney-General. He retained Mr. Adams's Secretaries of Treasury and Navy, until the following autumn, when Albert Gallatin, a naturalized foreigner, was appointed to the first-named office, and Robert Smith, to the second. The President early resolved to reward his political friends, when he came to "revise" the "agencies in every department." Three days after his inauguration he wrote to Colonel Monroe: "I have firmly refused to follow the counsels of those who have desired the giving of offices to some of the Federalist leaders in order to reconcile. I have given, and will give, only to Republicans, under existing circumstances." The doctrine, ever since acted upon, that "to the victor belongs the spoils," was then practically promulgated from the fountain-head of the government patronage; and with a Cabinet wholly Democratic when Congress met in December, 1800, and with the minor offices filled with his political friends, Mr. Jefferson began his Presidential career of eight years' duration.

The insolence of the North African pirates now became unbearable, and the United States resolved to cease paying tribute to the Barbary Powers. Captain Bainbridge had been sent, in 1800, in the frigate *George Washington*, to pay the usual tribute to the Dey of Algiers, and had been treated with cruel insolence by that ruler. After performing the errand courteously, and when he was about to leave, the Dey commanded Bainbridge to carry an Algerian ambassador to the Court of the Sultan of Constantinople. Bainbridge politely refused compliance, when the haughty governor said: "You pay me tribute, by which you become my slave, and therefore I have a right to order you as I think proper." Bainbridge could not sail out of the harbor of Algiers without the permission of the vigilant guns of the castle, and was compelled to yield. He bore the swarthy ambassador

to the Golden Horn, when the Sultan saw our starry-flag for the first time. He had never heard of the United States of America. His own flag was garnished with a *crescent*, and he considered it a favorable omen for a flag bearing the *stars* of heaven to enter the waters of the seat of the Moslem Empire.

Bainbridge was granted a *firman* to protect him from further insolence from the Barbary rulers, and he used it efficiently. When he returned to Algiers, he was ordered by the Dey to go on another errand to Constantinople, when the captain peremptorily refused. The African, enraged, sprang from his seat, and threatening Bainbridge with personal injury, ordered his attendants to seize him. Bainbridge quietly produced the *firman*, when the lion became like a lamb. The Dey obsequiously offered the man whom he had just regarded as his slave, his friendship and service. Bainbridge, assuming the air of a dictator, demanded the instant release of the French consul and fifty or sixty of his own countrymen, whom the Dey had imprisoned, and they were borne away in the *Washington* in triumph. Then he wrote to the Secretary of the Navy: "I hope I shall never again be sent to Algiers with tributes, unless I am authorized to deliver it from the mouth of our cannon."

In the spring of 1801, President Jefferson, in anticipation of troubles with the Barbary powers, ordered Commodore Dale to go with a squadron, composed of the frigates *President*, *Philadelphia*, *Essex* and *Enterprise*, to cruise off the North African coasts. Dale reached Gibraltar on the first of July, and found that Tripoli had lately declared war against the United States, and its corsairs were out upon the sea. His presence effectually restrained the pirates, and made them quite circumspect. The next year a larger squadron, composed of the frigates *Chesapeake*, *Constitution*, *New York*, *John Adams*, *Adams* and *Enterprise*, commanded by Commodore Richard V. Morris, were sent to the same waters, one after another, from February to

September. The harbor of Tripoli was blockaded in May, and not long afterward the *Chesapeake*, Lieutenant Chauncey acting captain, had a severe fight with a flotilla of Tripolitan gun-boats. These, as well as some cavalry on shore, were severely handled by this frigate. Finally, in 1803, the whole squadron appeared off the coasts of the Barbary powers, and effectually protected American commerce from the corsairs, for awhile. But Morris's cruise was not regarded as an efficient one. A court of inquiry decided that he had not "discovered due diligence and activity in annoying the enemy," and the President dismissed him from the service without trial.

In August, 1803, Commodore Preble, in command of a squadron, sailed for the Mediterranean in the frigate *Constitution*. After settling some difficulties with the Emperor of Morocco, whose corsairs were on the sea, he appeared with his vessel before the harbor of Tripoli, where a serious disaster occurred. The frigate *Philadelphia*, commanded by Captain Bainbridge, while reconnoitering the harbor, struck a rock and was captured by the Tripolitains. Her officers were made prisoners-of-war, and her crew were made slaves. When the news reached Preble at Malta, a plan was devised for the destruction of the *Philadelphia* before her captors could make her ready for sea. Lieutenant Decatur, with seventy-four volunteers—ardent and gallant young men like himself—sailed from Syracuse in a small vessel called a "ketch," named the *Intrepid*. She entered the harbor of Tripoli on the evening of the 3d of February, 1804, in the disguise of a vessel in distress, and was moored alongside the *Philadelphia*. Decatur and his men were concealed below, when suddenly they burst from the hatches like a destructive flame, leaped on board the *Philadelphia*, and after a desperate fight, killed or drove into the sea her turbaned occupants. Then they set her on fire and escaped by the light, under cover of a heavy cannonade from the American squadron, and followed by

shots from the castle, vessels at anchor in the harbor, and batteries on shore. Yet not one of Decatur's men was harmed. Before a favoring breeze they sailed to Syracuse, where they were greeted with joy by the American squadron there. The scene of the burning vessel was magnificent. As the guns of the *Philadelphia* were heated, they were discharged, giving a grand *feu de joie* for the victory.

This bold act alarmed the Bashaw, and subsequent events made him very discreet. In August following, Preble, with his squadron, opened a heavy bombardment upon his town, castle, shore-batteries and flotilla of gun-boats, no less than four times, between the 3d and the 28th. In one of these engagements Decatur again distinguished himself. In command of a gun-boat, he laid her alongside one of the largest of the Tripolitan vessels, boarded her, and made her a prize. Then he boarded another, when he had a desperate personal encounter with her powerful captain. The struggle was brief but fearful. Decatur killed his antagonist, and the vessel was captured. Finally, on the 28th of August, Preble, with his flag-ship, the *Constitution*, entered the harbor, when her great guns opened a heavy fire upon the town, the castle, the batteries on shore and the camps of twenty-five thousand land troops, and the flotilla in the harbor. She silenced the Tripolitan guns, sunk a Tunisian vessel-of-war, damaged a Spanish one, severely bruised the enemy's galleys and gun-boats, and then withdrew without a man hurt.

Another attack was made on the 2d of September. On that night—a very dark one—the *Intrepid*, which had been converted into a floating mine—an immense torpedo—with one hundred barrels of gunpowder below her deck, and a large quantity of shot, shell and irregular pieces of iron lying over them, went into the harbor under the general direction of Captain Somers, to scatter destruction among the vessels of the enemy. She was towed in by two boats, with brave crews, in which it was expected all would escape, after

firing combustibles on board of her. All hearts in the American squadron followed the *Intrepid* as she disappeared in the gloom. Suddenly a lurid flame, like that from a volcano, shot up from the bosom of the harbor, and lighted with its horrid glare the town, castle, batteries, ships camps and surrounding hills. It was followed by an explosion that shook the earth and sea, and flaming masts and sails and fiery bombs rained upon the waters for a moment, when darkness more profound settled upon the scene. The safety-boats were anxiously watched for until the dawn. They never returned, and no man of that perilous expedition was heard of afterward. Their names are inscribed upon a monument erected to the memory of these brave men, and the event, that stands at the western front of the Capitol at Washington city. Hostilities on the Barbary coast now ceased for the season. Preble was relieved by Commodore Samuel Barron, and early in 1805 he returned home and received the homage of the nation's gratitude.

While Barron's ships blockaded Tripoli, an important land movement against that province was undertaken, under the general management of William Eaton, American consul at Tunis. The reigning Bashaw of Tripoli was an usurper, who had murdered his father and taken the seat of power from his brother, Hamet Caramalli. The latter had fled to Egypt. A plan was concerted between him and General Eaton for the restoration of his rights. The latter acted under the sanction of his government. Eaton went to Egypt, and at the beginning of March he left Alexandria, accompanied by Hamet and his followers, some Egyptian soldiers, and seventy United States seamen. They made a march of a thousand miles across the borders of the Libyan desert; and at near the close of April, in conjunction with two American vessels, they captured the Tripolitan city of Derne, on the borders of the Mediterranean Sea. They had defeated the Tripolitan forces in two battles, and were about to march on the capital

when news came that the American consul-general (Tobias Lear) had made a treaty of peace with the terrified Bashaw. So ended the hopes of Hamet, and also the four years' war with Tripoli. But the ruler of Tunis was yet insolent. He was speedily humbled by Commodore Rodgers, Barron's successor, and the power of the United States was respected and feared by the half-barbarians of the north of Africa. Pope Pius the Seventh declared that the Americans had done more for Christendom against the pirates than all the powers of Europe united.

In 1802 Jefferson learned with alarm that Spain had in 1800 secretly ceded back to France all the territory gained after the French and Indian war. The importance to us arose from the fact that this territory called Louisiana controlled the navigation of the Mississippi, which was of vast importance to the people of Tennessee, Kentucky and Ohio, which had just been admitted as a State (1802). We had succeeded in getting from Spain the right to freely navigate the river through her territory, and what was of more importance, obtained the privilege of making New Orleans a base of deposit for our merchandise. This concession, however, was suddenly revoked, with the result that our trade was ruined. Jefferson accordingly instructed Edward Livingston, our Minister to Paris, to urge strongly upon Napoleon the purchase on our part of what was called "the island of New Orleans" on the east side of the river. Talleyrand at first conducted the negotiation with his usual baffling policy, until Monroe arrived in Paris, who joined Livingston in the negotiations. Suddenly Napoleon turned on Livingston and asked him how he would like to buy the whole Louisiana territory, stretching from the Mississippi river to Mexico and the Rocky Mountains. Such a proposition came very much as would now an offer of Great Britain to sell us the whole of the Dominion of Canada. Livingston consulted Monroe, and, though they were without authority, resolved to make the bargain, not without a feel-

ing that there was some ulterior motive on the part of Napoleon. The chief motive was money, of which the conqueror stood in great need, and also the fact that he had no means of defending the territory against the British fleet, and that his enemy might deprive him of it. The bargain was quickly struck. Talleyrand not appearing in this negotiation, because of the X. Y. Z. controversy. Napoleon's minimum was 50,000,000 francs, but Barbè-Marbois, who acted for him, offered first to sell for 100,000,000, and finally took 80,000,000, which would equal about \$15,000,000 of our money, according to the rate of exchange. We were to pay \$11,250,000 in 6 per cent. bonds and assume \$3,750,000 of claims of our own people against France for the spoils of our commerce. We agreed to give French shipping equal rights with ours for twelve years, and forever on the basis of the most favored Nation. The ceded citizens were assured the rights in religion and property and were in due time to become citizens. This took but a few days to settle, and our commissioners were astounded at their success. Finding, after the bargain was struck, that the terms delimiting this territory were indefinite, they tried later to find whether Louisiana included the Florida, but were met with evasive answers. We got all that Spain got from France, but whether this included West Florida or not was uncertain. It would not do to ask Spain, for that Nation was ignorant of the transaction, and great was her wrath on hearing of it, when it was too late. She then resisted our effort to include even West Florida in the cession, but we finally took it by force. The southwestern boundary was not stated and not settled for many years. The treaty was signed May 2, 1803, and great was the excitement in America when the news became known. The treaty was ratified in spite of Jefferson's own belief that it was unconstitutional thus to acquire territory, and the objections from the East that it would ruin the country. In spite of all fears the people considered it a good

bargain and decided that the sovereignty of the Nation gave the right to acquire territory as might be desired. Thus by a stroke of the pen our territory was almost doubled.

The same year when Louisiana was bought, President Jefferson, by a confidential message to Congress, recommended an appropriation, which was made, to defray the expenses of the Lewis and Clark expedition to explore the West, detailed elsewhere in this volume. Michigan was erected into a Territory in the year 1805, and all along the Mississippi settlements were taking deep root and flourishing.

At that time there was a prevailing opinion in our country that the Spanish inhabitants in Louisiana would not quietly submit to the rule of our government. Taking advantage of this belief, and the restless spirits of the inhabitants who were forming States in the Great Valley, Aaron Burr, an ardent politician and expert and unscrupulous intriguer, who had been Vice-President of the United States during Jefferson's first term, thought he saw an opportunity to make circumstances subservient to his own ambitious views. In the summer of 1804 he had murdered General Hamilton in a duel, and became an outcast from society. He was tolerated only by his political party, and was not renominated by Mr. Jefferson.

In the spring of 1805 Burr departed for the West, giving deceptive reasons for his journey. He went down the Ohio River in an open boat, and on a pleasant morning in May he appeared at the charming island home of Herman Blennerhassett.

Into that paradise the wily serpent crept, and repeated the story of the fall. Mrs. Blennerhassett, an ambitious woman, with an enthusiastic nature, was tempted by the apple of Burr's seductive promises of wealth, power and immortal honors, and she persuaded her husband to eat of the fruit. He placed his fortune and reputation at the disposal of that heartless demagogue, and lost both. He was driven by necessity from his lost paradise, and died in comparative poverty.

Burr, at first, gained the confidence of that stern patriot, Andrew Jackson, whom he visited at his log-dwelling at the "Hermitage," near Nashville. They corresponded for a time after Burr returned to the East in the fall of 1805, and so active were the schemer and his few partisans in the West in 1806 that a military organization was partly effected. He had overcome General Wilkinson with his wiles; and so strong was the confidence of Jackson in the integrity of Burr, that when the latter again visited the Hermitage early in the autumn of 1806, the former procured for him a public ball at Nashville, at which the tall hero, in military dress, led the little adventurer in his suit of black into the room, and introduced him to the ladies and gentlemen present. Circumstances soon afterward caused Jackson to suspect Burr's fidelity to his country, and he communicated his suspicions to Governor Claiborne at New Orleans. The national government received similar warnings, and took measures to crush the viper in its egg. Burr's arrest was ordered, and this was accomplished in February, 1807, near Fort Stoddart, in Alabama, by Lieutenant (afterward Major-General) E. P. Gaines. Burr was taken to Richmond, in Virginia, and there tried for treason. The evidence seemed to show that his probable design was an invasion of the Mexican provinces and not a disseverance of the Union, and he was acquitted.

At about this time when Burr conceived his schemes, trouble between Spain and the United States had occurred, and, for awhile, threatened to kindle a flame of war between the two governments. But the boundaries were amicably settled by satisfactory definitions, and the clouds passed away.

The First Consul of France had procured his election to a seat on an imperial throne, in the spring of 1804; and on the 2d of December following, he appeared before the altar of the Church of Notre Dame, in Paris, where he was consecrated "The High and Mighty Napoleon the First, Emperor of the French." In 1806, he was monarch

of Italy, and his three brothers were made ruling sovereigns. Then he was upon the full tide of successful domination, and a large part of continental Europe was prostrate at his feet. England had joined the continental powers against him in 1803, in order to crush out the Democratic revolution which had occurred in France, and threatened the peace of the United Kingdom; and the British navy had almost destroyed the French power on the sea. At the same time American shipping enjoyed the privilege of free intercourse between the ports of England and France, and pursued a very profitable carrying trade which unforeseen circumstances soon destroyed.

The envious shipping-merchants of Great Britain, and her navy officers and privateers who could then obtain very few prizes lawfully, represented to their government that the Americans, under the guise of neutrality, were secretly aiding the French. This hint caused that government to revive in full force the "rule of 1756" concerning neutrals; and orders were secretly issued authorizing British cruisers to seize and British admiralty courts to condemn as prizes American vessels and their cargoes that might be captured by British cruisers.

The depredations of these cruisers upon American commerce were commenced under the most frivolous and absurd pretexts, and the most intense indignation was aroused throughout the United States. Memorials from merchants in all the seaboard towns and cities were presented to Congress, in which the Democrats, with Mr. Jefferson (just re-elected) at their head, had an overwhelming majority. This and other grievances inflicted by the British government were discussed. Among them the alleged right of search which the British put forth, was paramount; and on the recommendation of the President, Congress, in the spring of 1806, passed an act prohibiting the importation into the United States of many of the more important manufactures of Great Britain, after the first of November following. In May Wil-

William Pinckney was sent to London to join Mr. Monroe, the American minister there, in negotiating a treaty with the British government concerning the rights of neutrals, the impressment of seamen, and the right of search. A treaty was finally signed, but as it did not offer security to American vessels against the aggressions of British cruisers in searching for and carrying off seamen, the President would not lay it before the Senate.

A new difficulty now arose. In their anxiety to injure each other, the British and French governments ceased to respect the rights of other nations, and dealt heavy blows at the life of the commerce of the world. In this business Great Britain took the lead. On the 16th of May (1806) that government, by an order in council, declared the whole coast of Europe from the Elbe to Brest to be in a state of blockade. Napoleon retaliated by issuing a decree from Berlin on the 21st of November, in which he declared all the British islands to be in a state of blockade. This was intended as a blow against Britain's maritime supremacy, and was the beginning of the Emperor's "Continental System," designed to ruin Great Britain. The latter, by another order in council issued January, 1807, prohibited all coast trade with France. So these desperate powers played with the world's commerce in their mad efforts to injure each other. American vessels were seized by both English and French cruisers, and American commerce dwindled to a merely coast trade. Our republic lacked a competent navy to protect our commerce on the high seas; and the swarm of gun-boats (small sailing-vessels having each a cannon in the bow and stern), which Congress had authorized from time to time, were insufficient for a coast-guard.

Early in 1807, American commerce was almost swept from the sea by the operations of the "orders" and "decrees." The French had withheld the operation of the decrees for full a year, but the British cruisers had been let loose at once. This produced bitter feeling toward the government of Great

Britain on the part of the Americans, and this was intensified by the haughty assertion and offensive practice of the British doctrine of the right of search for suspected deserters from the royal navy, and to carry away the suspected without hindrance. This right was claimed on the ground that a British-born subject could never expatriate himself, and that his government might take him, wherever found, and place him in the army or navy, although, by legal process, he may have been a citizen of another nation. This right of search and seizure had been strenuously denied and its policy strongly condemned, because American seamen might be thus forced into the British service under the false pretext that they were deserters. This had already happened. It had been proven, after thorough investigation, that since the promulgation of the British rule of 1756, a dozen years before, nearly three hundred seamen, a greater portion of them Americans, had been taken from vessels and pressed into the British service.

A crisis now approached. A small British squadron lay in American waters near the mouth of the Chesapeake Bay, watching some French frigates blockaded at Annapolis, in the spring of 1807. Three of the crew of one of the vessels, and one of another had deserted, and enlisted on board the United States frigate *Chesapeake*, lying at the Washington Navy Yard. The British minister made a formal demand for their surrender. Our government refused compliance, because it was ascertained that two of the men (one colored) were natives of the United States, and there was strong presumptive evidence that a third was, likewise. No more was said, but the commander of the British squadron took the matter into his own hands. The *Chesapeake*, on going to sea on the morning of the 22d of June (1807), bearing the broad pennant of Commodore Barron, was intercepted by the British frigate *Leopard*, whose commander hailed the commodore and informed him that he had a dispatch for him. Unsuspicious of unfriendliness, the *Chesapeake* was

laid to, when a British boat bearing a lieutenant came alongside. That officer was politely received by Barron, in his cabin, when the former presented a demand from the commander of the *Leopard* to allow the bearer to muster the crew of the *Chesapeake*, that he might select and carry away the alleged deserters. The demand was authorized by instructions received from Vice-Admiral Berkeley, at Halifax. Barron told the lieutenant that his crew should not be mustered, excepting his own officers, when the latter withdrew and the *Chesapeake* moved on.

Barron, suspecting mischief, had caused his vessel to be prepared for action as far as possible. The *Leopard* followed, and her commander called out to the commodore through his trumpet: "Commodore Barron must be aware that the vice-admiral's commands must be obeyed." This was repeated. The *Chesapeake* kept on her way, when the *Leopard* sent two shots athwart her bows. These were followed by the remainder of the broadside that poured shot into the hull of the *Chesapeake*. The latter was unable to return the fire, for her guns had no priming powder. Not a shot could be returned; and after being severely bruised by repeated broadsides, she was surrendered to the assailant. Her crew was mustered by British officers; the deserters were carried away, and the *Chesapeake* was left to pursue her voyage or return. The "vice-admiral's command" had been obeyed. One of the deserters, who was a British subject, was hung at Halifax, and the three Americans were spared from the gallows only on the condition that they should re-enter the British service.

The indignation of the American people was hot because of this outrage. The President issued a proclamation at the beginning of July, ordering all British armed vessels to leave the waters of the United States, and forbidding any to enter them until ample satisfaction should be given. A demand for redress was made upon the British government, when an envoy ex-

traordinary was sent to Washington city to settle the difficulty. He was instructed to do nothing until the President's proclamation should be withdrawn. So the matter stood for more than four years, when, in 1811, the British government disavowed the act. Meanwhile Commodore Barron had been tried on a charge of neglect of duty in not being prepared for action, found guilty, and suspended from service for five years without pay or emolument.

During the year 1807, American genius and enterprise achieved a great triumph in science and art, by the successful and permanent establishment of navigation by the power of steam. This was the second of the great and beneficent achievements which have distinguished American inventors during the last eighty years. The cotton-gin, invented by Eli Whitney, was the first; an implement that can do the work of a thousand persons in cleaning cotton-wool of the seeds.

Another heavy blow was struck at American commerce late in 1807. A British order in council issued on the 11th of November, forbade all neutral nations to trade with France or her allies, except upon the payment of a tribute to Great Britain. Napoleon retaliated by issuing a decree at Milan, in Italy, on the 17th of December, forbidding all trade with England and her colonies; and authorizing the confiscation of any vessel found in his ports which had submitted to English search, or paid the tribute exacted. These edicts almost stopped the commercial operations of the civilized world. American foreign commerce was annihilated. The President had called Congress together at an earlier day (October 25) than usual, to consider the critical state of public affairs; and in a confidential message, he recommended that body to pass an act levying a commercial embargo. Such an act was passed on the 22d of December, 1807, by which all American and foreign vessels in our ports were detained and all American vessels abroad were ordered home im-

mediately, that the seamen might be trained for the impending war in defence of sacred rights.

This act caused widespread distress in commercial communities, and the firmness of the government and the patriotism of the people were severely tried for more than a year, under aggravated insults by the British government which exacted tribute in a form more odious than that of the North African robbers. In the spring of 1808, the British Parliament, with an air of condescension, passed an act permitting Americans to trade with France and her dependencies, on the condition that vessels engaged in such trade should first enter some British port, pay a transit duty, and take out a license.

The embargo failed to obtain from France or Great Britain the slightest acknowledgment of American rights, and it was repealed on the first day of March, 1809—three days before Mr. Jefferson left the Presidential chair to make room for James Madison, who had been elected to succeed him as chief magistrate of the republic. On the same day Congress passed an act forbidding all commercial intercourse with France and Great Britain until the "orders in council" and the "decrees" should be repealed.

JAMES MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION

James Madison began his administration with George Clinton, of New York, as Vice-President, during this troublesome time in our Country's history.

It was believed that the new President would perpetuate the policy of Jefferson; but when, dressed in a suit of plain black cloth, he modestly pronounced his inaugural address before a multitude of eager spectators, on the 4th of March, 1809, the tone and temper of that speech fell like oil upon troubled waters. His most placable political enemies who heard him, and those who read the address, could not refrain from uttering words of appro-

bation; and the whole nation entertained hopes that his measures might change the gloomy aspect of public affairs. He had able constitutional advisors in Robert Smith, as Secretary of State; Albert Gallatin, Secretary of the Treasury; William Eustis, Secretary of War; Paul Hamilton, Secretary of the Navy, and Cæsar Rodney, Attorney-General.

At the beginning of his administration, Madison was assured by the British minister at Washington (Mr. Erskine) that such portions of the orders in council as affected the United States would be repealed by the 10th of June; and that a special envoy would be sent by his government to adjust all matters in dispute. Regarding these assurances as official, the event seemed like a ray of sunlight among the tempestuous clouds. The President issued a proclamation on the 19th of April (1809), permitting a renewal of commercial intercourse with Great Britain from that day; but the British government disavowed Erskine's act, and in August the President, by proclamation, renewed the restrictions. This event produced intense excitement throughout our country; and had the President then proclaimed war against Great Britain, it would undoubtedly have been a popular measure.

Great Britain not only continued her hostile orders, but sent ships-of-war to cruise off the principal ports of the United States to intercept American merchant-vessels and send them to England as lawful prizes. In this business the *Little Belt*, Captain Bingham, a British sloop-of-war, was engaged in the spring of 1811 off the coast of Virginia, where she was met on the 16th of April by the American frigate *President*, Captain Ludlow, bearing the broad pennant of Commodore Rodgers. The latter hailed the commander of the sloop, asking—"What ship is that?" and received a cannon-shot in reply. "Equally determined," said Rodgers, in his report, "not to be the aggressor, or suffer the flag of my country to be insulted with impunity. I gave a general order to fire." After

a very brief action, Captain Bingham, having eleven men killed and twenty-one wounded, gave a satisfactory answer. The vessels parted company, the *Little Belt* sailing for Halifax.

The conduct of both officers, in this affair, was approved by their respective governments. That of the United States and the people regarded the conduct of Captain Bingham as an outrage without palliation; and the Americans were willing to take up arms in defence of what they regarded as right, justice and honor. They knew the strength of the British navy and the weakness of their own, yet they were willing to accept war as an alternative for submission, and to measure strength on the ocean. At that time the British navy consisted of almost *nine hundred* vessels, with an aggregate of one hundred and forty-four thousand men. The American vessels-of-war, of large size, numbered only *twelve*, with about three hundred guns. There was a large number of gun-boats, but these were scarcely sufficient for a coast-guard. For a navy so weak to defy a navy so strong, seemed like madness. We must remember, however, that the royal navy was much scattered, for that government had interests to protect in various parts of the world. It was the boast of the Britons that the sun never set on the dominions of their monarch.

The administration was now sustained by a larger majority of the American people than that of Jefferson had ever been, and the Federalists, or the Opposition, were in a hopeless minority. The continued acts of aggression by the British were increasing the Democratic strength every day; and in 1811, circumstances seemed to make war with Great Britain an imperative necessity for the vindication of the honor, rights and independence of the United States.

In the same year occurred an uprising of Indians in the West, which at one time looked very serious. The British agents in Canada had continued to stir up the Indians against the United States, which caused much friction. There arose now two remarkable

chiefs among the Shawnee tribe, in Indiana, who planned a general uprising that should destroy our rule West of the Alleghanies. These two brothers were Tecumseh, a warrior chief, and Elkswatawa, a medicine man or priest, commonly known as the "Prophet." These were men of ability and cunning. They preached a general uprising of all the Indian tribes in the country and succeeded in stirring up great excitement among the redmen. With no proper organization or equipment such a movement was bound to fail, but it was nipped in the bud by General William Henry Harrison, Governor of the Northwest Territory. After considerable palaver, in which the Indian chiefs professed friendship Harrison did not believe, and which their marauding belied, Harrison was treacherously attacked by the Indian allies at Tippecanoe, the Prophet's town, near Terre Haute, in the absence of Tecumseh. He utterly defeated them, after a hard battle, and broke the power of the confederacy. Tecumseh sought Canada and the knowledge of aid he secured there increased the resentment against Great Britain. On top of this came the Henry exposure. John Henry, a British agent, had been in this country seeking to stir up political factions and to fan the Federalist resentment against the Administration. Having a falling out with the ministry he sold the correspondence in his possession to Madison for \$50,000. This showed a great defection in New England, and while no one was incriminated it disclosed that Great Britain was secretly trying to bring about a civil war. After this, the preservation of peace was no longer possible unless Great Britain should back down.

The Twelfth Congress chose Henry Clay, of Kentucky, as Speaker. Clay, who had already served a part of a term in the Senate, was now the coming man in Congress. He was the first of the vigorous, breezy Western statesmen. He was bold, earnest and defiant. In the House the young men who had grown up since the Revolution were in the ascendant. John C.

Calhoun and Langdon Cheeves, of South Carolina, were men who became leaders at the start and were particularly the leaders of the party of War Hawks, who declared that negotiations should end and war begin. Randolph had fallen from influence, but was still a picturesque and brilliant free lance. On April 4, 1812, a ninety days embargo was laid, preliminary to war, and June 18, war was formally declared against great Britain. Hurried measures were passed to raise funds, enroll militia and increase the army and navy to prepare for the contest. Canada was looked upon as the battle ground, though the actual military force at hand was ludicrously small.

As a matter of fact, Great Britain had already repealed the obnoxious orders in Council, but this did not become known for weeks. Quick communication might have prevented war, but, perhaps, it was necessary to show to the world that we could maintain our position by force if necessary.

Surely the country was ill prepared for war. The army was small, munitions were scarce; of able generals there were almost none, while the Treasury was not prepared to raise the money needed for the strife. Moreover the country was by no means unanimous in favor of the war. New England was largely against it and the financial centers as a whole were opposed to it. The National Bank was gone and the only way to raise money was by an appeal for subscriptions to bonds. New England leaders had never been satisfied with Republican rule, but success of the administration of Jefferson had carried some of the States in its favor. A reaction now set in and the subscriptions to bonds in New England were almost nil. Indeed, if Stephen Girard, the Philadelphia banker, a native Frenchman, had not come forward at a critical moment with a loan of \$5,000,000 the Treasury would have been bankrupt.

The first year of the war consisted in one series of disastrous failures on land and brilliant victories on the sea. The war will be treated as a whole, and

an interruption is here made to announce that Madison was re-elected, though the opposition was formidable, and for a time it seemed as if a coalition had been formed which would have defeated him. Eldridge Gerry, of Massachusetts, who has added the term "gerrymander" to our political lexicon, was chosen Vice-President. The opposition candidates were Dewitt Clinton, of New York, and Jared Ingersoll, of Pennsylvania. The electoral vote stood: Madison, 128; Clinton, 89. This seems like a comfortable majority, but Pennsylvania alone turned the scale. Even then Clinton would have won had he carried North Carolina and either Vermont or Ohio, all of which were confidently claimed by the Federalists. This was the last National stand of the father party and they now practically disappeared from politics.

Few persons realize that George III was still King of Great Britain at this time, but he was no longer the ambitious, bull-headed man of fifty years previous. He was practically an imbecile and Great Britain was governed by a ministry which contained hard headed, gruff men, who could see or would see nothing but Napoleon, for whose destruction they worked unceasingly. Strange as it may seem to us, after all the bitter affronts to our representatives, the terrible spoliation of our commerce, the wholesale impressment of our seamen amounting to worse than slavery, the aid given to barbarous Indians and the continuous insults to the Nation, the British Ministry was not only surprised but professed itself hurt at the declaration of war and really believed it was paving the way for a good understanding. It is not remarkable that a war was necessary to enlighten such an intellectual status. Had this country been prepared to strike quick and hard, Canada would soon have been ours. Unfortunately this country has never been prepared for war, has always suffered terribly for its neglect of so plain a duty, yet the lessons of every conflict up to and including the Spanish War,

of 1898, seem to have taught Congress little of the virtues of being forearmed.

The Canada campaign of 1812 reads almost like a comic history. Three attempts were made, or rather were to be made: one by way of Lake Champlain, one at Buffalo and one at Detroit, while General Harrison was to raise an army in the South and West to follow up expected victories. Governor Hull, of Michigan Territory, crossed from Detroit into Canada, July 12, 1812, with 2,200 men, mostly volunteers, captured a small post and threatened Malden. Soon he learned that the British and Indians had captured Fort Mackinaw, and hearing that the British General, Brock, was approaching, had a slight skirmish with his advance guard and retreated to Detroit in August. On the 16th he basely surrendered without a struggle. Harrison was now appointed to retrieve our fortunes in this section and the task proved a difficult one. It was hard to get an army together, supplies were scarce, transportation slow and unsatisfactory, so that winter came on before any move could be made.

In the meantime General Dearborn undertook the Eastern campaign with no better success. Gen. Van Rensselaer assembled an army principally of volunteer militia on the Niagara River, crossed over and would have had brilliant success if most of the militia had not refused to coöperate. Captain John Wool and Lieutenant Winfield Scott, destined to later fame, fought valiantly but in vain, though General Brock, conqueror of Detroit, fell mortally wounded. The expedition completely failed, Van Rensselaer resigned, and General Smyth, who succeeded him, made a more disgraceful failure, though he was much better equipped. Dearborn, at Lake Champlain, did practically nothing at all except to repulse a small British attack, wherein one Jacob Brown, a recent Quaker farmer, showed those qualities which later made him the chief hero of the war. Certainly this was a record of failure most discouraging. The only offset

was the sudden and unexpected glory achieved by our little navy.

Four complete victories not only fired American hearts, stimulated them to renewed efforts on land, but struck terror and amazement to British hearts for their navy had been considered well-nigh irresistible. These four naval duels were as follows:

The American frigate *Constitution*, forty-four guns, Captain Isaac Hull, on August 15th, met the British frigate *Guerriere*, thirty-eight guns, off the Gulf of St. Lawrence. They were almost evenly matched, though the *Constitution* was the stronger vessel and threw a heavier broadside, but the contest was decided by the superior gunnery of the American tars in a very brief time. The *Guerriere* was forced to strike her colors—the first time a British frigate had surrendered to a single frigate in many years.

On October 18th, Captain Jacob was cruising the sloop-of-war *Wasp*, eighteen guns, in Southern waters, when he fell in with the British sloop *Frolic*, twenty guns, convoying merchantmen. Again superior marksmanship decided the contest, and the *Frolic*, reduced almost to a complete wreck, struck her colors. Both vessels were shortly afterward captured by a British frigate, but this did not dim the glory of the achievement.

On October 25th, Captain Decatur, in the frigate *United States*, forty-four guns, fell in with the British frigate *Macedonian*, off the *Madeiras*, and captured her after a two hour's fight. Again the odds were slightly in favor of the American ship, but they were small.

The last sea fight of the year was between the *Constitution* and the British frigate *Java*, thirty-eight guns, off the coast of Brazil. The ships were nearly equal, the *Constitution*, now being commanded by Captain Bainbridge. The contest was soon decided overwhelmingly in our favor. Indeed, in all these contests it was apparent that our captains were better seamen, the tars more alert, while our gunners were

far superior. If, as should have been, our operations on land had been equally successful, the war would probably have come to an end at once with a good understanding all around, for neither the British Ministry nor the British people liked the war. It added terribly to the national expense, deprived them of a source of provisions, and presently a horde of American privateers went forth and almost ruined British commerce. American privateers were daredevils in those days, and often paid dearly for their risks; yet in the war they captured some 2,700 British merchantmen, sometimes in sight of the coast of England, infested the Irish Channel, put up marine insurance to prohibitive rates, produced famine prices for grain, and brought about unnecessary distress. And for what? Well, Great Britain's original idea in her policy was that she was using us to crush Napoleon, and now here she was at war with us, while Napoleon laughed in his sleeve. If, after the repeal of the Orders in Council, the British Government had given assurance that impressment would be discontinued, peace might have been made, but the Ministry evidently felt that they had gone far enough, and the war proceeded on the main question of sailor's rights. And it was our sailors who first demonstrated that American seamen must be free. After their victories in this war no treaty was necessary to assure them their rights. The greatest hardship was that impressed American tars were now compelled to fight their own countrymen, and when they refused were placed in dungeons, where many of them died.

The war was no sooner begun than Napoleon undertook his long-cherished plan of bringing Russia to book. Russia, it seems, would not agree to Napoleon's demands in the way of neutral trade, and was far from being humble or submissive. Having reduced most of the rest of the Continent to abject submission, Napoleon marked the Czar for his next victim. Then ensued the disastrous Moscow campaign,

which broke the Napoleonic spell and marked the beginning of his ruin. Great Britain and Russia were now allied against Napoleon, and it seemed strange to the Czar that the American war should continue over abstract questions which would settle themselves if Napoleon were out of the way. Our Minister at St. Petersburg was John Quincy Adams, son of the second President, with whom the Czar had repeated conferences, and Adams impressed upon him the true situation. Accordingly, the Czar officially proposed to Great Britain to mediate on all questions involved in the American war. This offer was embarrassing to the British Ministry. The American war was a burden, but it could not be given up at this stage, because pride forbade. And so the Czar's offer was refused, but not until this country had accepted it and commissioners were sent to represent our side of the controversy. Madison sent Gallatin and James A. Bayard, of Delaware, to join Adams, but by the time they arrived Great Britain had declined the offer of the Czar, and the war went on.

To raise an army was easy enough on paper, but difficult in fact. Bonds sold slowly, heavy war taxes were laid, and every effort put forth to instill life into the army without a great deal of success.

The military campaign of 1813 was opened by Harrison in the West. A portion of his troops were surprised in January at the River Basin by a British and Indian force, and utterly defeated. Surrendering the remnant, the British commander allowed his red-skinned allies to wreak their fury on the captives, and a terrible slaughter of innocents followed. This fresh disaster brought gloom to the country, but a desire for revenge as well, so that "Remember the River Raisin" was long a battle-cry. It was now midwinter, and Harrison could not bring up reinforcements, so that operations in this quarter were suspended for some time.

The war in the East promised little more. Dearborn captured York (now Toronto) and a few towns in Ontario

of no strategic importance which he was obliged to abandon. The British made an attack on Sackett's Harbor, which was bravely repulsed by Brown, who had few resources at his command. Dearborn, who was aged and incompetent, now retired, and General Wilkinson, who had been implicated in the Burr plot, was brought from Louisiana to command. He prepared for an attack on Montreal but with little vigor. General Armstrong, who had now become Secretary of War, came to the front and took personal charge. An invasion by two armies was planned, and then the Secretary went home, leaving a bad state of feeling behind. The army was fairly well equipped, the effort was made in a feeble way, but absolutely nothing came of it, and the Eastern army went into winter quarters. Another year of failure on land.

Again it was the navy that brought all the honors of the year. The control of the Great Lakes being of the highest importance, efforts were put forth on both sides to produce a fleet which had to be built of green timber. In an incredibly short time a small fleet was constructed at Erie, for which the cannon and rigging had laboriously been dragged overland. In command of Captain Oliver H. Perry this fleet with difficulty got afloat, largely manned by landsmen, and set forth to dispute possession with Captain Barclay, a veteran British officer who had a flotilla at the other end of the lake. Battle was joined September 10th. The British were superior in guns, particularly those available at long range. The American fleet was the largest, but part of the vessels stayed out of the fight until it was nearly over. Barclay brought his heavy guns to bear on the *Lawrence*, and soon disabled her. Perry transferred his flag from the *Lawrence* and began the fight once more, which ended in complete victory, after heavy losses on both sides. This fight took place off the present city of Sandusky, near which lay Harrison with his army. To him Perry sent the now memorable dispatch: "We have met the enemy and they are ours."

This hard-fought battle, in which Barclay lost his life, greatly added to the renown of our navy, and revived the drooping spirits of Americans who were disgusted with the army.

But now came one military victory to the nation's relief. Harrison had raised a considerable army, and began to advance on the British under Proctor, near Detroit. The latter retreated to Canada, and Harrison followed. The British were assisted by Tecumseh with a large band of Indians. Coming up with this force on October 5, 1813, at the River Thames, Harrison delivered battle, overwhelmingly defeated the enemy, drove Proctor east in alarm, while Tecumseh was numbered among the slain.

For the first time there were military operations in the South, where the Creeks had been roused by Tecumseh and the "Prophet." They began the usual Indian atrocities, but this time the man of the hour was at hand. Andrew Jackson, who had already been prominent in the West, began a campaign which by March 27, 1814, absolutely broke the power of warlike savages after a series of conflicts terrible in their ferocity. The Indians had set the pace by murdering, August 30, 1813, over 400 men, women and children at Fort Mims. After this there was little quarter given. Jackson returned from this campaign with substantial honors, soon to be greatly enhanced.

The navy again brought credit to the country, but the record of successes was broken. Indeed, nothing else could have been expected. The British had over 600 vessels in their navy, while the Americans started out with about twenty, but these were gradually taken or blockaded until, in spite of the new ones constructed, there were at the close of the war very few of them on the ocean—at times not a single frigate on the Atlantic.

On February 24th Capt. James Lawrence, of the *Hornet*, eighteen guns, fell in with the British brig *Peacock*, of about the same size and armament. The battle was short and decisive. In fifteen minutes the *Peacock* was shot to

pieces and soon sank. For this gallant action Lawrence was placed in command of the Chesapeake, which was being refitted in Boston harbor. Outside the bar the British frigate Shannon, Captain Broke, was cruising, anxious to meet any comer. In a spirit of bravado Broke sent a challenge to Lawrence, which the latter unfortunately accepted. The Chesapeake was not a manageable ship, was not yet in good condition, and her hastily collected crew was not drilled for service. But Lawrence would not wait for anything. His impetuosity overruled his judgment. The action was short, sharp and decisive. The Chesapeake was early crippled with the broadsides that injured her steering gear. Lawrence was mortally wounded, his last words being, "Don't give up the ship." Unfortunately the ship was already lost, and was carried to Halifax, where Lawrence was buried with the honors of war. It was now England's turn to rejoice, but it was her only opportunity during the war where the contending forces were about even.

The British sloop Pelican captured the American sloop Argus, August 13th, but on September 4th the British brig Boxer, with her flag nailed to the mast, was taken by the Enterprise. The vessels were of about equal size, carrying fourteen guns each. The last naval exploit of the war was the cruise of Captain Porter in the Essex, who sailed around Cape Horn and destroyed British commerce, particularly whaling vessels. After a remarkably successful cruise he refitted in some Pacific islands and sailed for Valparaiso and there, in a neutral port, he was attacked by a force twice the size of his own and defeated, March 28, 1814, but not without honor. In this cruise young midshipman Farragut first showed those qualities that made him so great a commander half a century later.

In the spring of 1814, when the war had continued nearly two years, nothing had been accomplished on land. Our victories on the ocean had been important, but at great cost, so that we had no longer an effective force at sea, because of the blockade of our

ports. Though we had ravaged British commerce, our own had suffered, and business at home was demoralized. The Government finances were in bad condition, and the administration of the War Department was grossly inefficient. We held not a foot of foreign territory, except a little in the neighborhood of Detroit. Not only had we lost our opportunities, but Napoleon was now in Elba and the flower of Wellington's troops were sent to America, where resistance seemed likely to be feeble. Three expeditions were sent from England, one to Canada to march into New York, one to New Orleans to capture Louisiana, and one to the Chesapeake to attack Washington. There was gloom and despair everywhere, while New England was in open political revolt. When the State troops were desired, some of the Governors in New England wanted to hold them for local defense. Insofar as they were not placed at the disposal of the War Department they were not paid. Opposition to the administration and the war was so bold and open that a threat of secession was made. If, early in 1814, New England had taken this step, the consequences would have been incalculable. Instead of doing so, a self-constituted body met at Hartford in convention and deliberated on the state of the country. Not all the States were represented, and the delegates were not radical men. The convention never came to a definite policy. It tentatively offered a plan to Congress requiring the adoption of a number of amendments to the Constitution which, if adopted would soon have reduced the Nation to anarchy or political impotency. There was an implied threat of secession if the terms were not accepted, and the Convention adjourned to get the answer of Congress, but as peace came almost at the moment, the propositions were never acted on, the convention never recalled, and everyone connected with the movement was anxious to have the matter forgotten. There was treason meditated, but it never was undertaken, and the subsequent protests that none was contemplated showed an anxiety for justifica-



BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS—DEATH OF GENERAL PAKENHAM

tion unnecessary in those possessed of patriotic motives.

This was the critical and last year of the war. Strangely enough, when matters were at their worst they began to mend, sometimes in quarters least expected. The Central invasion was a temporary success only. Admiral Cockburn arrived in the Chesapeake, ravaged and burned defenseless towns early in the summer of 1814. In August troops under General Ross were landed, and a march made overland to Washington. To repel this force, General Winder collected a force of militia at Bladensburg, outside Washington. There were men enough, but absolutely no discipline, and the arrangements made so necessarily involved defeat that it was inevitable. On August 24th Ross brushed aside the force and marched triumphantly into Washington, as the President and his Cabinet escaped across the Potomac. The Capitol, the President's house, the Treasury, and practically all the public buildings, were ruthlessly burned, together with bridges and property, altogether amounting to \$2,000,000. Stopping only a day, General Ross and Admiral Cockburn returned to the fleet, which sailed up the Chesapeake and attacked Fort McHenry, the fortress defending Baltimore. Ross made a land attack, but the troops were defeated and he was slain by a sharpshooter's bullet. An American citizen, Francis Scott Key, on board a British vessel, watched the bombardment all night, and in the morning beheld the flag of his country still waving over Fort McHenry. On the inspiration of this moment he wrote the National anthem, "The Star Spangled Banner," which was set to a well-known tune, and it has ever since been closest to the patriotic American heart. The fleet retired, and all the military invaders could boast of was the sacking of a capital in the spirit of the Middle Ages and a dead General.

This ended Armstrong's administration of the War Department. Monroe became Secretary of War, and still remained Secretary of State. Indeed,

Monroe was not only the last hope of the administration, but was about all there was of it.

In the meantime, on the Canadian border had taken place the only scientific campaign of the war. In the changes that took place the redoubtable Quaker, Jacob Brown, became Commander on the Niagara frontier. His young brigadiers were Scott, Ripley, Gaines, Porter, and Miller, each with a small brigade, but the officers and men were trained and courageous. At the Chippewa Creek, on the Canadian side, a stubborn battle was fought, July 5, 1814, in the open field, and the British defeated. At Lundy's Lane, near Niagara Falls, another stubborn fight took place July 25th, lasting until long after dark, and this was a moral and material victory, though Brown retreated to Fort Erie opposite Buffalo, where, in one of the most brilliant engagements of the war, the British were driven back with great slaughter. The main hope of the British was a naval demonstration on Lake Champlain, to assist the invading army under General Prevost. The American army under Izard, and the little flotilla under MacDonough, prepared to resist though largely overmatched. On September 11th, the British fleet sailed down and attacked MacDonough, who was at first badly handled. He had taken the precaution to so dispose his anchored fleet so that he could wear ship and turn the guns of the other sides of his vessels, which had not been in service, against the enemy. This foresight made his victory complete, and Prevost fled in haste back to Canada.

The last battle of the war took place after the treaty of peace had been signed. Jackson was placed in command of the South, where General Sir Henry Pakenham, one of the ablest British Generals, was expected with the flower of Wellington's volunteers. The expedition arrived late in 1814 and, coming to Lake Borgne, started overland to New Orleans. Jackson, who for some weeks had apparently failed to appreciate the situation, now hastily gathered his forces, being principally

riflemen, and took a strong position between the Mississippi and a swamp. Pakenham's advance was delayed by our artillery and two small vessels, but on January 8, 1815, an assault was made on the American breastworks. Pakenham had some 10,000 men, while Jackson had about 6,000. The assault was bravely made in the face of a withering fire. It was a failure, and the casualties were proportionately among the greatest in modern warfare. Pakenham was killed, General Gibbs mortally wounded, General Keane badly wounded, and General Lambert alone of the British general officers remained unhurt, while 2,600 soldiers were killed, wounded or captured. Jackson lost 8 men killed and 13 wounded. The victory was one of the most complete in history. Lambert retreated and soon learned that the war was over.

The end of the conflict was remarkable. When Great Britain, as narrated, refused the Czar's mediation, there was great disappointment in this country. Adams also was discouraged, but he broached the subject of an arbitration once more. Though in the midst of a campaign, the Czar made a second offer to Great Britain. This greatly embarrassed the British Ministry. They dared not offend the Czar, with whom they were engaged in crushing Napoleon, but they could not accept his offer. As a middle ground they agreed to negotiate with the United States direct, and accordingly commissioners met at Ghent to discuss the subject. To Adams, Gallatin and Bayard were now joined Henry Clay and Jonathan Russell, of Connecticut. These were five of the ablest men in America, and for the purpose employed could not easily have been overmatched. The British Ministry apparently was not so much desirous of peace as of gaining time to get the new expeditions off safely to the United States. Accordingly, they sent three inferior men, Sir Henry Goulburn, Lord Gambier and William Adams. The latter were soon overmatched. They made preposterous de-

mands for territory, which put Great Britain in the position of waging a war of conquest. This was untenable, but after negotiations, lasting from August to late in December, wherein our own commissioners, though not altogether harmonious, completely outwitted their opponents, a treaty of peace was finally made which left matters practically as they were before the war on paper, but it was well understood that impressment should cease, while Napoleon's fall left our commerce free. Before this was done the Ministry in vain tried to get the Duke of Wellington to take command in America. The treaty was signed December 24, 1814, by which we gained an honorable peace. Our victories on land and sea insured us respect at home and abroad. Theoretically the war seems to have been unnecessary and avoidable, but practically it gained for us that prestige that has made us ever since respected as a sovereign Nation. The war was worth all it cost, but it is likely that if the British had known into what political demoralization we had fallen, how low were our finances, and how weak our armies, we might not have come off so well.

Peace was received in Great Britain and the United States with the wildest enthusiasm. The Hartford convention proposition was buried, and Madison's administration suddenly achieved great reputation just as it seemed on the verge of collapse.

As soon as the war with Great Britain was ended, the United States felt impelled to engage in another with Algiers. Offended because he had not received from the American government, as tribute, precisely the articles which he had demanded, the semi-barbarian Dey of Algiers, in 1812, uncere- moniously dismissed Mr. Lear, the American consul, and declared war; and afterward his corsairs captured an American vessel, and the crew were reduced to slavery. Mr. Lear was compelled to pay the Dey \$27,000 for the safety of himself and family, and a few Americans who were there, to save them



DECATUR'S CONFLICT WITH THE ALGERINE AT TRIPOLI

all from being made slaves. Believing that the United States navy had been almost annihilated by the British in the late contest, this North African robber renewed depredations upon American commerce in violation of treaty obligations. Determined to pay tribute no longer to this insolent ruler, the American government accepted his challenge for war, and in May, 1815, sent Commodore Decatur to the Mediterranean, with a squadron, to humble the Dey. When Decatur passed the straits of Gibraltar, he found the Algerine pirate fleet cruising in search of American vessels. On the 17th of June, Decatur met the flag-ship of the Algerine admiral (a frigate of 44 guns), and after a brief engagement captured her, also another pirate ship with almost six hundred men. With these prizes he immediately sailed for the bay of Algiers, and on the 28th of June, he demanded the instant surrender of all the American prisoners, full indemnification for all property destroyed, and absolute relinquishment of all claims to tribute from the United States thereafter.

When the Dey of Algiers heard of the fate of a part of his fleet, that terrified robber hastened to comply with Decatur's demands; and in obedience to the commodore's requirements, the haughty chief appeared on the quarter-deck of the *Guerriere* (the flag-ship) with some of his officers of state and accompanied by the captives he was to release. There, on the 30th of June, he signed a treaty in accordance with the demands of Decatur, and departed deeply humiliated. From Algiers, after this triumph, the commodore sailed for Tunis, and demanded and received from the Bashaw or ruler of that state \$46,000, in payment for American vessels which he had allowed the British to capture in his harbor. This was in July. Then Decatur proceeded to Tripoli, the capital of another of the Barbary States, and in August demanded from the Bey, its ruler, \$25,000 for the same kind of injury to property and the release of prisoners. The treasury of the Bey being nearly empty, Decatur

accepted, in lieu of cash, the release from captivity of eight Danish and two Neapolitan seamen, who were held as slaves. This cruise in the Mediterranean sea gave full security to American commerce in these waters, and greatly elevated the character of the United States in the opinion of Europeans. During this cruise of about two months, in the summer of 1815, the navy of the United States accomplished, in the way of humbling the North African robbers, what the combined powers of Europe dared not to attempt.

The eventful administration of President Madison drew to a close in 1816. During that year the efforts of the government were put forth to complete the readjustment of the finances of the country after the derangements produced by a state of war. The finances of the government were then in a wretched condition. In this state of things the friends of a national bank pressed its claims upon Congress, and in the spring of 1816 a second bank of the United States was chartered for twenty years. The creation of this bank gave an impetus to general business. The government bank went into operation early in 1817, and receiving on deposit the funds of the national government.

During Madison's administration Louisiana and Indiana were admitted into the Union as States—the former in April, 1812, and the latter in December, 1816. There had been warm discussions on the subject of the admission of Louisiana, the Federalists strongly opposing the measure. The question of boundary between the possessions of Spain and the United States, in that region, was a serious one. Eastward of the vast territory which, under the title of Louisiana, had been ceded to the United States, and bordering on the Gulf of Mexico, was a region in possession of the Spaniards, known as East and West Florida, the dividing line between them being the Perdido River, now the line between Florida and Alabama. The western portion was claimed by the United States as in-

cluded in the cession, while the Spanish authorities asserted that their possession extended to the Mississippi. With the act for the admission of Louisiana was passed another act, annexing to that State that part of West Florida lying between the Mississippi and Pearl Rivers, and all eastward of that stream to the Perdido was annexed to the Territory of Mississippi. This measure produced unpleasant relations between the United States and Spain, which continued several years; and the dispute was not settled until after the retirement of Mr. Madison from the Presidency. The latter event occurred on the 4th of March, 1817. James Monroe, his Secretary of State, was his successor, having received an almost unanimous vote for the high office in the electoral colleges. At the same time, Daniel D. Tompkins, of New York, was elected Vice-President by a large majority.

JAMES MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION.

Monroe was the fifth President of the United States, and he entered upon the duties of his office under favorable auspices for himself and country. His inaugural address was liberal in its tone and gave general satisfaction, and the beginning of his administration was regarded as the dawning of an era of good feeling. The Federal party was declining in strength, and from the dominant party which had elected him, the President chose his cabinet-ministers, composed of John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts, Secretary of State; William H. Crawford, of Georgia, Secretary of the Treasury, and John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, Secretary of War. These were all aspirants for the Presidential chair. B. W. Crowninshield was continued Secretary of the Navy, and William Wirt was appointed Attorney-General. The President was thus surrounded by some of the ablest men of the republic as his constitutional advisers.

Mr. Monroe was conservative, judicious and conciliatory; just such a man

as was then needed in the place which he filled. It was a critical time in the history of the republic, for the country was in a transition state from that of war to one of peace. The demand for domestic manufactures and the high prices obtained for them during the war, had stimulated that particular industry, and many manufacturing establishments had been nurtured into vigorous life. When the war was ended and European manufactures came like a flood in quantity and at low prices, that industry was suddenly overwhelmed in disaster. Thousands of men and women were compelled to seek other employments, and many turned their eyes and their hopes to the millions of fertile acres beyond the Alleghany Mountains, and before the close of Monroe's administration, the Great West had begun its wonderful career. That administration was marked by an immense expansion in the material growth of the United States. Five independent States had been created and added to the Union—namely, Mississippi in 1817, Illinois in 1818, Alabama in 1819, Maine in 1820, and Missouri in 1821.

Monroe determined to know more of the country and the people he was called upon to preside over, and sixty days after he was seated in the chair of state he left the capital for an extensive tour. In the journey the President became acquainted with leading men of all parties, and was cordially received everywhere with civic and military escorts and the profound respect of the people. The effect of that tour was every way beneficial. Partisan asperity was softened, and genuine patriotism filled the hearts of the people. There was then an almost perfect union of sentiment throughout the country; but the slave system soon awakened the most bitter sectional feeling that disturbed the repose of the people for about forty years.

Congress had passed laws, after the year 1808, prohibiting the African slave trade in our country; but after the war, the rapid increase in the cultivation of cotton made the demand for slave labor

greater than the supply, and the African slave trade was reopened on the southern coasts in violation of law. There was also a brisk inter-state slave-trade act established, which continued until the breaking out of the late civil war.

Before the Revolution the unpleasant situation of free colored people among the slaves on account of their social disabilities had attracted the attention of benevolent persons, and efforts had been made to form a settlement for them in Africa. Nothing of great importance was accomplished until about the beginning of Monroe's administration, when the American Colonization Society was formed for that purpose, and for sending to such settlements slaves who had been unlawfully brought to the United States. The society founded the Republic of Liberia on the western coast of Africa which, since 1848, has been an independent state governed by its own people.

There were several important features of Monroe's administration that deserve especial attention. These were:

1. The acquisition of Florida.
2. The territorial compromise on slavery.
3. The Monroe doctrine of our hegemony in this hemisphere.
4. The tariff of 1824.

An Indian war arose along the Florida border, where it was easy for the Indians in Spanish territory to ravage the American border and escape. West Florida (all west of the Perdido) we held by power if not by right. Jackson, who commanded the army in the South, was so tired of Indian outrages and so regardless of international law, that he proposed seizing East Florida (the present State) without consulting Spain. Pursuing Indians into Florida in 1818, he seized two British subjects, whom he hanged as spies, and drove out the Spanish garrison. This the administration had to disavow, though Adams was disposed to uphold Jackson, while Calhoun opposed him—an act that had great effect on his political future. Jackson's conduct, however, was immensely popular, and this was increased

subsequently by a treaty with Spain, by which in 1819 we secured Florida on the payment of \$5,000,000 of claims by our citizens against Spain. Unfortunately King Ferdinand long delayed ratifying this treaty, and we were about to seize it forcibly when the ratification was effected in 1821. By this treaty our Southwestern border was fixed at the Sabine, the present western boundary of Louisiana. Between this river and the Rio Grande lay the territory known as Texas, to which we might have laid claim, certainly to half of it with good reason; but Monroe had noted the rising conflict between slave and free States and chose to cut off Texas, which would have afforded room for slavery extension. This aroused opposition in the South, and soon began the movement for the "reannexation of Texas," which was accomplished some twenty-five years later.

Now began the first earnest debate in Congress on the subject of the extension of the slave-labor system in our country. The first effort to check that extension was, as we have observed, in 1787, when the Northwestern Territory was organized. The subject was only briefly considered incidentally, from time to time, until 1819, when the inhabitants of the Missouri Territory asked for its admission into the Union as a State. A bill for that purpose was introduced into Congress which contained a provision forbidding the existence of slavery in the new State when admitted. This caused one of the most violent debates in the House of Representatives on the subject of slavery that had ever occurred in the national legislature. Extreme doctrines and foolish threats were uttered on both sides; and there was much adroit management by the party leaders, who used great dexterity in trying to avoid a compromise which had been agreed to at a previous session, when the subject was before the House. One party wished to have Missouri enter the Union as a slave-labor State, and the other party desired its admission as a free-labor State.

As compromise seemed to be the only

door through which Missouri might enter the Union, at that time, Henry Clay, who then first assumed the character of a pacificator, moved a joint committee to consider whether or not it was expedient to admit Missouri into the Union, and if not, what provision adapted to her actual condition ought to be made. This motion was adopted, a committee was appointed, but the final result, which was a compromise, was not reached until early in 1821. During the session of 1820-21, the discussions were sometimes very angry. The whole country, in the meantime, had become violently agitated by disputes on the subject, and a cry went forth from unwise and unpatriotic lips at the North and in the South for a dissolution of the Union. Then for the first time the people of the Union were vehemently and decisively divided on the subject of slavery. A member of Congress from Georgia prophetically said in the course of the debate: "A fire has been kindled which all the waters of the ocean cannot put out, and which only seas of blood can extinguish." A compromise was effected by the adoption of a provision in the bill (February, 1821) for the admission of Missouri, that in all territory south of thirty-six degrees and thirty minutes north latitude (the southern boundary of the State of Missouri) slavery might exist, but was prohibited in the region north of that line. This agreement, known as the "Missouri Compromise" (by which that Territory was admitted as a free-labor State), was respected for more than thirty years, when, in 1854, it was violated in favor of the slaveholders. Maine was admitted in 1820.

Our foreign concern had now taken a new direction. The Spanish States in North, Central and South America finally revolted against the cruelty and maladministration of the home Government. It took years to accomplish all this, but by 1821 Spanish control on the Western mainland had vanished, and republics were set up, Brazil still remaining a Portuguese dependency. All these events were of the gravest import to our country. Our people generally

sympathized with the patriots who won independence, and chimerical schemes of a great federated republic of the Western Hemisphere were proposed. Monroe, during the revolutions, took the lead in granting belligerent rights, which step was of great value. King Ferdinand viewed these losses with alarm, but as Spain was reduced almost to impotency, he was unable alone to reconquer them. To get them back he implored the aid of the "Holy Alliance," which had been organized in 1815 by the sovereigns of Russia, Austria and Prussia in the general interests of legitimacy to prevent another Napoleon gaining power, and to put down all revolts of the people against those "whom God has rendered responsible for power." Ferdinand considered that his case came under the protection of the "Holy Alliance" all the more because a recent revolution in Spain had imposed on him a constitutional form of Government that restricted his authority in a way most exasperating to the "Lord's Anointed." Ferdinand was rescued by a French army, which once more overran poor, devastated Spain, suppressed popular government and restored to Ferdinand his "rights."

The situation was now a delicate one. Great Britain had no love for the "Holy Alliance." Her war against Napoleon had not been so much to restore the Bourbons as to crush the despotism of a man who sought to dominate Europe. The British Ministry now showed a friendliness to the United States never before expressed. Great Britain wanted peace and feared another Continental war. Her tone of studied indifference to our concerns gave way to an earnest friendliness that was as pleasing as it was surprising to our Ambassador, Richard Rush. It was not long before Rush discovered that if Monroe took a strong position in reference to South American affairs, he would receive the moral support of Great Britain. This may or may not have influenced Monroe, but certain it is that, in his annual message of 1823, Monroe covered the whole ground of our position briefly, yet forcibly. His position was this:

The United States will not interfere with any existing European governments in the Western Hemisphere, but it will not permit any interferences with the existing Republics nor any further European colonization in America whatever. This firm expression, known as the Monroe Doctrine, has ever since been successfully asserted. It has often been stretched to mean more than was applicable to the then existing situation, but, in general, the doctrine of America for the Americans with the United States, as leader and champion of the whole, has become a fixed tenet in our political philosophy. The "Holy Alliance" took the hint, and it was forty years before any Nation in Europe undertook to defy the Monroe Doctrine, at a time when we were in the throes of Civil War.

The tariff bill of 1824 was the beginning of the policy which finally produced the Whig party. Clay led in favor of higher protection than we had even attempted in times of peace, while Webster appeared in opposition. The measure was passed by a narrow margin, and became a rallying point in politics.

While the Missouri question was pending, an election for President of the United States occurred. Never was a canvass carried on more quietly than this, and Monroe and Tompkins were re-elected by an almost unanimous vote, the old Federal party as a political organization being nearly extinct. Mr. Monroe's second term was not marked by any very important public occurrences, but a pleasing incident in our history distinguished the last year of his administration. It was the visit of General Lafayette to the United States as the "Nation's guest."

The elections held in the autumn of 1824 showed conclusively that not one of the candidates would be elected by the popular vote, and that the choice would devolve upon the House of Representatives. This was determined by the vote of the electoral colleges; and in February, 1825, the House of Representatives chose John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts, for President, and

John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, for Vice-President, by the votes of thirteen States.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION.

John Quincy Adams, son of the second President of the United States, entered upon the duties of that high office on the 4th of March, 1825. The Senate was in session at the time of his inauguration, and that body, by unanimous vote, immediately confirmed Mr. Adams's nominations for cabinet ministers, excepting Henry Clay, against whose confirmation fourteen votes were cast. It had been charged that Mr. Clay, seeing little chance for his own election to the Presidency, had used his influence in favor of Adams and against Jackson with the understanding that he was to be appointed Secretary of State. This alleged "bargain" was the cause of opposition to Clay's confirmation. He was appointed Secretary of State; Rich Rush, Secretary of Treasury; James Barbour, Secretary of War; Samuel L. Southard, Secretary of the Navy, and William Wirt, Attorney-General.

Mr. Adams's administration began under the most pleasant auspices. The country was at peace with all nations, and no serious domestic trouble appeared, while general prosperity reigned in the land and there seemed to be nothing that would disturb the serenity of public affairs. This quietude prevailed, in a degree, during the whole of Mr. Adams's administration of four years, which were the least conspicuous for stirring events in the history of the republic. The discords engendered by the late exciting election had produced healthful agitation, but measures were adopted that caused stormy times in the administration that followed.

A threatening cloud appeared in the firmament at the beginning of Adams's administration. When Georgia relinquished her claim to a considerable portion of the Mississippi Territory, the national government agreed to purchase for that State the Indian lands within

its borders "whenever it could be peaceable done upon reasonable terms." The Creeks and the Cherokees, who were practicing the arts of civilized life, refused to sell their lands and remove into an uncultivated wilderness. The Georgians were impatient, and their governor demanded of the United States the instant fulfillment of the contract, by a removal of the Indians. He ordered a survey of their lands to be made, and he prepared to distribute their possessions among the citizens of Georgia; and because the national government seemed tardy, he assumed the right to remove the Indians himself. Our government took the just position of defenders of the Indians, and for awhile the matter bore a serious aspect. The difficulties were finally settled, and in the course of a few years the Creeks and Cherokees were settled on lands beyond the Mississippi River.

It was at the beginning of Mr. Adams's administration that the greatest work of internal improvement ever undertaken in our country, in the interest of commerce, was completed. It was the Erie Canal, which traverses the State of New York in an east and west line three hundred and sixty-three miles, between Buffalo and Albany, and connects the water of the upper lakes and those of the Hudson River by a navigable stream.

The venerable father of the President, John Adams, died at Quincy, Massachusetts, on the 4th of July, 1826, just fifty years, almost to an hour, after the Declaration of Independence was adopted. On the same day and almost at the same hour, Thomas Jefferson expired, at Monticello, in Virginia. Mr. Adams was about ninety-one years of age, and Mr. Jefferson about eighty-three. They were both members of the committee appointed to draft the Declaration of Independence. Mr. Jefferson was its literary author, and Mr. Adams was its chief supporter in the Congress. The death, simultaneously, of these two of the chief founders of the republic, produced a profound sensation; and in many places throughout

the Union, eulogies and funeral orations were pronounced.

The most important movement in the foreign policy of Adams's administration was the appointment of commissioners to attend a congress of representatives of the South American Republics, which assembled at Panama, on the Pacific coast, on the 22d of June, 1826. The result of that congress was not very important; but the policy of sending to it representatives of the government of the United States caused much discussion here.

The *American System*, as it was called (a system of protection and encouragement for American manufacturing establishments, by means of high duties imposed on fabrics made abroad and imported into the United States), was fully developed and assumed the form of a national policy late in the administration of Mr. Adams. On account of the illiberal commercial policy of Great Britain, tariff laws were enacted in 1816 as retaliative measures; and in 1824 imposts were laid on foreign fabrics imported into our country, for the avowed purpose of encouraging home manufactures. These movements were opposed by the cotton-growers, as inimical to their interests; and to a national convention assembled at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, in 1826, to discuss the general subject of tariffs and manufactures, only four of the slave-labor States sent delegates. That convention petitioned Congress to increase the duties on foreign fabrics that were specified, and it was done in the spring of 1828. The measure pleased the manufacturing interest, and displeased the cotton-growing interest. It was denounced in some of the Southern States as oppressive and unconstitutional, and resistance to the law was suggested.

In the autumn of 1828, John Quincy Adams and Andrew Jackson were rival candidates for the Presidency of the United States. Jackson was elected, with John C. Calhoun as Vice-President, by a very large majority, after a most exciting canvass, during which a stranger to our institutions, looking

on, would have believed the nation to be on the verge of civil war. Mr. Adams's administration closed on the 4th of March, 1829. It had been marked by great tranquillity and unexampled national prosperity. Peaceful relations with foreign nations existed, and the national debt had been diminished at the rate of more than \$7,000,000 a year, it being at the time of his retirement about \$58,000,000. This real prosperity he bequeathed to his successor, and he left the chair of state blessed with the grateful benedictions of the survivors of two wars and their families, to whom had been distributed in pensions, during the four years, more than \$5,000,000.

ANDREW JACKSON'S ADMINISTRATION.

Jackson, when a lad, had served as a soldier in the old war for independence; and when he proceeded from his lodgings, in Washington City, to the capitol to be inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1829, he was escorted by surviving officers and soldiers of that war. His valorous deeds in the second war for independence (1812-15) were remembered by the soldiers of the second war, and they thronged the national capital on that day to witness the exaltation of the chief.

President Jackson was honest, brave and true to his moral convictions. He began his administration with an audacity of conduct that amazed his political friends, and alarmed his enemies. He swept his political opponents out of the various offices; but in making new appointments, he aimed to have the incumbent answer the searching queries in the affirmative—"Is he capable? Is he honest?" His foreign policy was indicated in his instructions to Louis McLane, his first minister to England, in which he said: "Ask nothing but what is right, and submit to nothing that is wrong." Jackson was so decided in his opinions and actions—so positive in character—that he was thoroughly loved or thoroughly hated; and for eight years he braved the fierce

tempests that arose out of partisan strifes, domestic perplexities and foreign arrogance, with a skill and courage that challenge our profound admiration.

At the beginning of Jackson's administration, the government of Georgia renewed its demand for the removal of the powerful Cherokee nation from that State. The President favored the demand, and white people proceeded to take possession of Cherokee estates which had been assigned to them. These Indians were then advanced in civilization, many of them being successful agriculturists. They had churches and schools, and a printing-press; and as they were disposed to defend their rights, civil war appeared inevitable for awhile. In 1832, the Supreme Court of the United States decided against the claim of Georgia, when that State, supported by the President, resisted the decision. An amicable settlement was finally reached; and under the mild coercion of General Winfield Scott and several thousand troops, the Cherokees left Georgia in 1838, and went to lands assigned them well toward the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains.

In his first annual message, President Jackson took strong ground against a renewal of the charter of the United States Bank, which would expire in 1836. It was occasionally varied by some contra-excitement, like that of the "Black Hawk War" in 1832. At that time the region now known as the State of Wisconsin was an almost unbroken wilderness. Several Indian tribes inhabited it; and these, led by Black Hawk, a fierce Sac chief, made war upon the frontier settlers of Illinois in April, 1832. After some skirmishes with United States troops and the militia of Illinois, the Indians were driven beyond the Mississippi, and their leader, made captive, was taken to eastern cities, that he might be impressed with the folly of contending with a nation so numerous and strong.

Now began a conflict which shook the republic to its very centre. The

doctrine of State sovereignty, or State supremacy, formulated in the first constitution of the republic known as the *Articles of Confederation*, and discarded in the second constitution, yet prevailed, especially in South Carolina, where John C. Calhoun was its most earnest exponent. The discontents alluded to growing out of the tariff acts and crystallized by the alchemy of this doctrine, assumed the concrete form of incipient rebellion against the national government when, in the spring of 1832, an act of Congress was passed imposing additional duties on imported textile fabrics. A State convention of delegates was held in South Carolina in November following, at which it was declared that the tariff acts were unconstitutional and therefore null and void; and it was resolved that no duties should be collected in the port of Charleston by the national government. It was also proclaimed that any attempt to enforce the law would be resisted by the people in arms, and would cause the secession of South Carolina from the Union. The State Legislature that met soon afterward passed laws in support of this declaration, and military preparations were made for that purpose. Civil war seemed to be inevitable, but the President met the exigency with his usual promptness and vigor. On the 10th of December he issued a proclamation (written by Louis McLane, Secretary of the Treasury), in which he denied the right of any State to nullify an act of the national government, and warned those engaged in the movement in South Carolina that the laws of the United States would be enforced by military power, if necessary. The "nullifiers" yielded to necessity for the moment, but their zeal and determination were not abated. Great anxiety filled the public mind for a time, until Henry Clay, one of the most earnest promoters of the *American System*, appeared as a pacificator, by offering a bill (February 12, 1833) which provided for a gradual reduction of the obnoxious duties during the next ten years. This compromise was accepted by both par-

ties, and the bill became a law in March. President Jackson had been re-elected to the Chief Magistracy in the autumn of 1832, with Martin Van Buren as Vice-President. The latter had been Secretary of State, and was appointed by the President, during the recess of Congress, to succeed Mr. McLane as minister to England. The Senate afterward refused to ratify the appointment, and Van Buren was recalled. This act was regarded as a gratuitous indignity offered to the administration. Its friends made use of it to create sympathy for the rejected minister, and he was elected to preside over the body which had declared him to be unfit to represent the republic at the British court. The result completely alienated Calhoun from the administration.

While the country was agitated by the movements of the nullifiers, the President himself produced equal excitement by beginning a series of acts in his warfare upon the United States Bank which were denounced as high-handed and tyrannical. In his annual message in December, 1832, the President recommended Congress to authorize the removal from that institution of the government moneys deposited in it, and to sell the stock of the bank owned by the United States. Congress refused to do so. After the adjournment of that body, the President took the responsibility of ordering Mr. Duane, the Secretary of the Treasury, to withdraw the public funds from the bank, and deposit them in certain State banks. The Secretary refused, when the President removed him from office, and put in his place R. B. Taney, then the Attorney-General and afterward Chief-Justice, who obeyed his superior. The removal of the funds began in October, 1833. When the functions of the bank were paralyzed, all commercial operations felt a deadening shock. This fact confirmed the opinion of the President that it was a dangerous institution, and he refused to listen favorably to all prayers for a modification of his measures, or for action for relief made by numerous committees of merchants, manufacturers and mechanics, who

waited upon him. To all of them he said, in substance: "The government can give no relief nor provide a remedy; the banks are the occasion of the evils which exist, and those who have suffered by trading largely on borrowed capital ought to break; you have no one to blame but yourselves." The State banks received the government funds on deposit, and loaned them freely. The panic subsided; confidence was gradually restored, and apparent general prosperity returned.

It collapsed at the touch of the Ithurian spear of Necessity. A failure of the grain crop of England caused a large demand for corn to pay for food products abroad. The Bank of England, seeing exchanges running high and higher against that country, contracted its loans and admonished houses who were giving long and extensive credits to the Americans, by the use of money borrowed from the bank, to curtail that hazardous business. At about the same time the famous "Specie Circular" went out from our Treasury Department (July, 1836), directing all collectors of the public revenue to receive nothing but coin. From the parlor of the Bank of England and from the Treasury of the United States went forth the unwelcome fiat, Pay up! American houses in London failed for many millions; and every bank in the United States suspended specie payments in 1837, but resumed in 1839. Then the United States Bank, chartered by the legislature of Pennsylvania, fell into hopeless ruin, and with it went down a very large number of the State banks of the country. A general bankrupt law, passed in 1841, relieved of debt almost forty thousand persons, whose liabilities amounted in the aggregate to about \$441,000,000.

These financial troubles were preceded by the breaking out of war with the Seminole Indians in East Florida, a consequence of an attempt to remove them, by force, to the wilderness west of the Mississippi River. Led by Micanopy, their principal sachem and chief, they began a most distressing warfare upon the frontier settlements

of Florida, in which Osceola, a chief superior in ability to Micanopy (for he possessed the cunning of Tecumtha and the heroism of a Metacomet), was an active leader for awhile, for he had private wrongs to revenge.

In the spring of 1832, some of the Seminole chiefs, in council, agreed to leave Florida, and made a treaty to that effect. Other chiefs (among whom was Osceola) and the great body of the nation resolved to stay, declaring that the treaty was not binding upon them. At length, in 1834, General Wiley Thompson was sent to Florida with troops to prepare for a forcible removal of the Indians. Osceola stirred up the nation to resistance. One day his insolent bearing and offensive words in the presence of Thompson caused that general to put the chief in irons and in a prison for a day. Osceola's wounded pride called for vengeance, and it was fearfully wrought during a war that lasted about seven years. By bravery, skill, strategies and treachery, he overmatched the United States troops sent against him and commanded by some of the best officers in the service.

At last the treacherous chief became a prisoner in the hands of General Jesup. That officer received Osceola and other chiefs, with a train of seventy warriors, under a flag of truce, in a grove of magnolias in the dark swamp. As the chief arose to speak, Jesup gave a signal, when two or three of his soldiers rushed forward and seized and bound Osceola with strong cords. He made no resistance; but several of his excited followers drew their gleaming hatchets from their belts. The muskets and bayonets of Jesup's troops restrained them, and they were dismissed without their leader, who was sent to Charleston and confined in Fort Moultrie. There he died of a fever, and a small monument was erected over his grave near the main entrance to the fort. The Seminoles, under other leaders, continued to resist, notwithstanding almost nine thousand United States troops were in their territory at the close of 1837. For more than two

years afterward Taylor and his men endured great hardships in trying to bring the war to a close. A treaty for that purpose was made in May, 1839, but so lightly did its obligations bind the Indians that they continued their depredations. It was not until 1842 that a permanent peace was secured, when scores of valuable lives and millions of treasure had been wasted in a war that had its origin in the injustice of the white man toward his dusky neighbor.

In the intercourse of President Jackson's administration with foreign governments, his instructions given to Minister McLane, already alluded to, formed the basis of action. He demanded what was right with vigor, and refused to submit to what was wrong on all occasions; and by this course he secured to our republic the profound respect of the nations of the globe. At the end of his first term, the foreign relations of our government were very satisfactory, excepting with France. That government, by a treaty which he had vigorously pressed to a conclusion, had agreed to pay to the United States \$5,000,000, by instalments, as indemnity for injury to American commerce, which the operations of the various decrees of Napoleon from 1806 until 1811 had inflicted. The legislative branch of the French government did not promptly comply with the provisions of the treaty, and the President assumed a hostile attitude. The affair was finally settled in 1836, before Jackson left the chair of state. Similar claims were made against Portugal, and payment obtained; and for similar reasons the king of Naples agreed to pay to the United States \$1,720,000. Commercial treaties were made with several European states and with the Sultan of Turkey; and when Jackson retired from office in the spring of 1837, our republic, with its national debt extinguished, was more respected than ever by the powers of the earth.

During the administration of President Jackson, of eight years, two new States were admitted into the Union, making the whole number twenty-six.

These were Arkansas and Michigan. The former was admitted in June, 1836, and the latter in January, 1837. At that time Jackson's administration was drawing to a close. Martin Van Buren, who had been nominated for the Presidency, with the understanding that if elected he would continue the general policy of Jackson, was chosen to that office by a very large majority of the popular vote. The people failed to elect a Vice-President, when the Senate chose Richard M. Johnson of Kentucky, for that office.

MARTIN VAN BUREN'S ADMINISTRATION.

It seemed to be the opening of a new era in the history of our Republic, when, on the 4th of March, 1837, Martin Van Buren, of New York, of Dutch descent, was inaugurated the eighth President of the United States. His predecessors in that office were all of British stock, and had been personally engaged in the events of the old war for independence; he was born at near the close of that war, and was in the fifty-fifth year of his age when he entered the chair of state.

Mr. Van Buren's administration began at an inauspicious time, for the fearful commercial revulsion, already alluded to, had just begun. During March and April, 1837, there were mercantile failures in the city of New York to the amount of more than one hundred million dollars. Only fifteen months before, property to the amount of more than twenty million dollars had been consumed by a great fire, which occurred in December, 1835, when more than five hundred buildings were destroyed. The effects of these losses and failures at the commercial emporium were felt in every part of the Union, and business confidence received a paralyzing shock. A deputation of merchants and bankers of New York waited upon the President in May with a petition praying him to defer the collection of duties, rescind the "Specie Circular," and call an extraordinary session of Congress. Their prayer was

rejected, and when the fact became known, nearly all the banks in the country suspended specie payment. This movement embarrassed the government, for it was unable to obtain coin wherewith to discharge its own financial obligations. So situated, the public good demanded legislative relief, and the President called an extraordinary session of Congress on the 4th of September. In his message to that body, he proposed the establishment of an independent treasury for the public funds, totally disconnected with all banking institutions; but during a session of forty-three days, Congress did very little for the general relief, excepting the authorizing of an issue of treasury notes, in amount not exceeding ten million dollars. The independent treasury scheme met with violent opposition, but a bill to that effect became a law in July, 1840, and the "Sub-Treasury System" was put into operation.

Peaceful relations between the United States and Great Britain, which had then existed many years, were somewhat disturbed in 1837 and 1838 by events connected with a revolutionary movement that broke out in Canada, the avowed object being to achieve the independence of the provinces of British rule. In this effort our people sympathized, and gave the insurgents all possible aid and comfort. Individuals and organized companies went across the border and joined the insurgents; and refugees from Canada were protected here. The agitation and the outbreak occurred simultaneously in Upper and Lower Canada, but local jealousies prevented a unity of action, and the scheme failed. The active sympathy of the people of the "States," and especially along the northern frontier, irritated the British government. The President issued a proclamation, warning Americans not to violate neutrality and international laws; and he sent General Winfield Scott to the northern frontier to preserve order. It was not permanently effected until at the end of about four years.

Many stirring incidents occurred on the frontier during that outbreak in the

Canadas, the most conspicuous of which was on the bosom of the Niagara River. A party of Americans, seven hundred in number, with twenty cannon, took possession of Navy Island, in that stream, two miles above the Great Falls. They had a small steamboat named *Caroline*, that plied between the Island and Schollosser, on the New York shore. One dark night in December, 1837, a party of royalists crossed the river from Canada, set the *Caroline* on fire, cut her loose from her moorings, and allowed her to go blazing down the fearful rapids and over the crown of the mighty cataract into the seething gulf below. It was believed that some persons were on board the *Caroline*, and perished with her.

Another cause for unpleasant feeling between the governments of the United States and Great Britain was a long-standing dispute concerning the true boundary between the State of Maine and the British province of New Brunswick. The inhabitants of each frontier had become so exasperated that at the close of 1838 they were preparing for actual war. General Scott was sent to the scene of strife as a pacificator in the winter of 1839, and the dispute was settled by a treaty negotiated by Daniel Webster and Lord Ashburton, the same year. Provision was made in the same treaty for the co-operation of the two governments in the suppression of the African slave trade; also for the giving up of fugitives from justice, in certain cases. This is known in history as the Ashburton Treaty.

Mr. Van Buren was a candidate for the Presidency a second time, and was nominated for that office by the unanimous vote of the Democratic convention assembled at Baltimore in 1840. In December, 1839, a national Whig convention, held at Harrisburg in Pennsylvania, nominated General William Henry Harrison of Ohio for President and John Tyler of Virginia for Vice-President. The canvass was a very exciting one, and the method of carrying it on by one party was exceedingly demoralizing. Because Harrison lived in the West and his residence was for-

merly a log cabin, such a structure became the symbol of his party; and because of his proverbial hospitality, that quality was symbolized by a barrel of cider. Log cabins were erected all over the country as places for political gatherings, and seas of cider were drunk in them. Young and old partook freely of the beverage, and the meetings were often mere drunken carousals that were injurious to all, and especially to youth. Many a drunkard afterward sadly charged his departure from the path of sobriety to the "Hard Cider" campaign of 1840. Demagogues, as usual, had made the people believe that a change in administration would restore prosperity to the country, and they adroitly held the administration of Van Buren responsible for nearly all the woes the country was suffering. The consequence was that Harrison and Tyler were elected by overwhelming majorities; and in the spring of 1841 Mr. Van Buren surrendered the Presidential chair to the popular soldier of the West.

HARRISON'S AND TYLER'S ADMINISTRATIONS.

General Harrison was an old man—sixty-eight years of age—when he entered upon the duties of chief magistrate of the nation. He seemed vigorous in mind and body when he delivered his inaugural address from the eastern portico of the Capitol. It was received with favor by all parties, for it was full of wisdom; and confidence was half restored in the commercial world, when it was known that he had chosen Daniel Webster for Secretary of State; Thomas Ewing, Secretary of the Treasury; John Bell, Secretary of War; George E. Badger, Secretary of the Navy; Francis Granger, Postmaster-General and John J. Crittenden, Attorney-General. This beginning gave omen of the dawn of a day of prosperity for the land, and there were glad hearts everywhere. But the anthems of the inaugural day were speedily changed into solemn dirges. The hopes centered in the new President were extinguished; for precisely one month

after he took the oath of office from Chief-Justice Taney, he died. He had performed only one official act of great importance during his brief administration, and that was the issuing of a proclamation on the 17th of March, calling an extraordinary session of Congress in May to consider the subjects of finance and revenue.

John Tyler, the Vice-President, became the constitutional successor of President Harrison. He was called to Washington from Williamsburg in Virginia, by a message sent by Harrison's cabinet-ministers on the 4th of April (the day on which the President died), and he was in the national capital at four o'clock on the morning of the 6th. At noon the cabinet-ministers called upon him in a body, and he took the oath of office, administered by Judge Cranch. To the gentlemen present, after alluding to the deceased President, Mr. Tyler said, "You have only exchanged one Whig for another." He had been a Democrat of the school of strict constructionists of the Constitution, but when he was a candidate for the Vice-Presidency, he had avowed himself to be a firm and decided Whig. It seems proper here, in order to better understand the brief record of events that follow, to give an outline sketch of political parties in the United States at that time.

We have seen that the Federal party was cast into a minority on the election of Mr. Jefferson in 1800, and continued in opposition until the close of Madison's administration in 1817, when they soon afterward became extinct as a national party; the administration of Mr. Monroe being so generally satisfactory, that opposition practically ceased. When, in 1824, Adams and Jackson, Crawford and Clay, became rival candidates for the Presidency, separate political organizations of a personal nature were formed, composed of Federalists and Democrats intermingled; but when Jackson was elected to the chief magistracy in 1828, his supporters claimed the name of Democrats. His opponents took the name of National Republicans, but when in 1833

and 1834 they were joined by seceders of the Democratic party, they took the title of Whigs. At the accession of Mr. Van Buren in 1837, the great national parties into which the people were divided were known respectively as Democrats and Whigs. Several minor parties (some of them local in their organization), such as the Anti-Masons in the Eastern States; the State-Rights men in the South, who were opposed to the removal of the deposits from the United States Bank; and the supporters of Jackson in Georgia, Tennessee, and other States, who were opposed to Van Buren, generally acted with the Whig party.

Even before the elevation of Mr. Van Buren to the Presidency, the Democratic party had been divided in the Northern and Middle States. There arose in its ranks, in 1835, in the city of New York, a combination opposed to all moneyed institutions and monopolies of every sort. They were the successor of the defunct Workingmen's party, formed in 1829, and called themselves the "Equal Rights Party." They acted with much caution and secrecy in their opposition to the powerful National Democratic party. They never rose above the dignity of a faction, and their first decided demonstration was made in Tammany Hall, one evening at the close of October, 1835, when the "Equal Rights" men objected to some names on the ticket to be put before the people. There was a struggle for the chair, which the "regulars" obtained, declared their ticket and resolution adopted, and then attempted to adjourn the meeting and put out the lights. The opposition were prepared for this emergency by having "loco-foco" or friction matches in their pockets, with which they immediately restored light to the room, placed their leader in the chair, adopted an "Equal Rights" Democratic ticket, and passed strong resolutions against all monopolies. The faction was ever afterward known as the Loco-Focos, and the name was finally applied by the Whigs to the whole Democratic party. This faction became formidable, and the regulars

endeavored to conciliate the irregulars by nominating Richard M. Johnson of Kentucky, their favorite candidate for the Presidency, for Vice-President, with Mr. Van Buren. The advocacy of an extensive specie currency by the latter, and his proposition for a sub-treasury, alienated another portion of the Democratic party, and they formed a powerful faction known as "Conservatives." This faction finally joined the Whigs, and in 1840 aided in the election of Harrison and Tyler.

The first extraordinary session of the Twenty-seventh Congress began on the 31st of May, 1841, and continued until the 13th of September following. Subjects of grave importance to the nation were presented to that body, chief of which was that of the finances of the country. The Secretary of the Treasury (Mr. Ewing) strongly urged the necessity of a national bank, and recommended Congress to charter one with a capital of thirty million dollars. At the request of Congress (whose action was suggested by the President), the Secretary reported a plan of a "Fiscal Bank of the United States," with a bill for its incorporation. He endeavored to free the plan from the constitutional objections to preceding institutions of a similar nature. It was known that the President had decided constitutional objection to the old bank and had assisted Jackson in his warfare upon it; and a bill was finally framed, partly upon the plan proposed by the Secretary, and partly by one proposed in the Senate by Mr. Clay, which the President, it was said, had declared met his views. It was passed on the 6th of August, as eminently the great Whig measure of the session, and one which was to restore confidence to the business community and inaugurate a day of national prosperity. It was sent to the President for his signature, when, to the great disappointment of his political friends, he returned it with his objections ten days after its passage. The Whigs in Congress were bewildered, and great anxiety was felt throughout the country. There was not a sufficient number of its supporters in Congress

to enable them to carry the measure over the President's veto, and they hastened to construct a new bill that would meet his views. He was visited by two members deputed for the purpose, and a bill in accordance with his wishes was drawn up and submitted to Mr. Webster, the Secretary of State, who laid it before Mr. Tyler. The latter approved it, and it was sent to the House of Representatives and passed by that body. In conformity to his wishes the name of "Bank" was omitted in the latter.

While the second bill was pending in Congress, a private letter written by the late John M. Botts of Virginia, concerning the veto, was made public. He charged the President with infidelity to the party in power, saying: "One Captain Tyler is making a desperate effort to set himself up with the Loco-Focos, but he'll be headed yet, and, I regret to say, it will end badly for him. He will be an object of execration with both parties. . . . He has refused to listen to the admonitions of his best friends, and looked only to the whisperings of ambitious and designing mischief-makers who have collected around him." This letter so irritated the President that, allowing his personal feelings to control his public action, he resolved to oppose any bank bill that might be offered at that session. The second bill, which the President had approved, was passed without alteration on the 3d of September. He had expressed a strong desire, at the beginning of the session, to have the matter postponed until the regular session, but the friends of the measure in Congress and throughout the country demanded immediate action. The bill was submitted to the President for his signature, and pursuant to his resolve, he vetoed it on the 9th—six days after its adoption. In consequence of this act the Whigs, who had elevated Mr. Tyler to his high dignity, were greatly exasperated, and he was denounced as unfaithful to solemn pledges and as a secret enemy, who was playing into the hands of his late associates, the Democrats. All of Mr. Tyler's cabinet-ministers resigned

excepting Mr. Webster, who patriotically remained at his post because grave public interests connected with his department required it. In fact, Mr. Webster felt that the bank matter had been pushed with too much haste and persistency, considering the state of the President's mind, "since there was reason to believe that the President would be glad of time for information and reflection before being called on to form an opinion on another plan for a bank—a plan somewhat new to the country." Mr. Webster wrote, "I thought his known wishes ought to be complied with. I think so still. I think this is a course just to the President and wise in behalf of the Whig party." But such counsels did not prevail, and there was a decided alienation between the President and the Whig party from the time of the resignation of his cabinet.

During that extraordinary session of Congress, other important measures were adopted. The wants of the treasury were supplied, provision was made for fortifications, the sub-treasury act was repealed, and a bankrupt act, which Mr. Webster spoke of as "a great measure of justice and benevolence," was passed. By the latter act, thousands of honest and industrious men who had been prostrated by the tempest of business disaster which had swept over the land, and were hopelessly in debt, were enabled to stand on their feet again and give their energies to the promotion of the various industries of the country. It bore hard upon the creditor class; and when rogues sought its shelter while cheating honest men, the law was repealed.

The second year of Mr. Tyler's administration (1842) was distinguished by the return of an expedition which the government sent out late in the summer of 1838, under the command of Lieutenant Charles Wilkes, to explore the great Southern Ocean. That expedition cruised along what was supposed to be the shores of a Southern continent, seventeen hundred miles in the vicinity of latitude 66 degrees. Much valuable scientific information was obtained, for able scientists and

artists accompanied the expedition; but owing to the imperfect methods of the publications of the results, that knowledge has not been properly diffused among the people. At the end of a voyage of about ninety thousand miles, the expedition presented to the nation a large collection of specimens of the natural history and curiosities of the islands of the South Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. A greater portion of these are preserved in the custody of the National Institute, in the building of the Smithsonian Institution at Washington city. The last-named institution was founded with funds bequeathed to the United States government by James Smithson, of England, in trust, to be used for "the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men." The sum bequeathed, when received in 1838, was more than half a million dollars in gold, and in 1865, a residuary legacy of over \$26,000 was received. That institution is carrying out the benevolent views of Mr. Smithson in an admirable manner.

During President Tyler's administration, a spark of civil war appeared in Rhode Island, which seemed to demand the interference of the national government. The constitution of Rhode Island was the old charter granted by Charles the Second, and under it the people had prospered until 1842, when it was proposed to abandon it and make a new constitution. There was a wide difference of opinion as to the method to be pursued in making the change. A "Suffrage," or Radical party, and a "Law and Order," or Conservative party were formed. Each adopted a constitution and elected a governor and legislature under it; and in May and June, 1843, both parties were armed in support of their respective claims. The State was on the verge of civil war, when the interference of national troops was invoked. The constitution of the "Law and Order" party was sustained, and no further trouble ensued.

This local agitation was followed by a national one. On the Southwestern borders of our Republic was a sov-

ern State called Texas, a part of the domain of ancient Mexico that was conquered by the Spaniards. The Mexicans revolted and set up an independent government, which became a Republic under a constitution similar to that of the United States, and was divided into nineteen States and five Territories; Texas was one of the former. The Mexican government encouraged emigration into that State, and in 1833, full ten thousand Americans were settled there. Santa Anna, a restless, unscrupulous and selfish intriguer and revolutionist, had made himself military dictator of Mexico. The people of Texas, unwilling to submit to his arbitrary rule, revolted, and in 1836, that State was declared to be independent. Santa Anna was then in that country with a heavy military force; but at a battle near the San Jacinto River, late in April, he was defeated by General Houston and made a prisoner. This ended the war for Texan independence, and that independence was acknowledged by the United States in the spring of 1837. But the people of Texas were continually harassed by Mexican marauders; and when, in 1843, President Tyler made a proposition to the President of that Republic for its annexation to the United States, it was gladly accepted. A treaty to that effect was negotiated, and it was signed in April, 1844, by the Texan commissioner and John C. Calhoun, who was then Secretary of State; but the Senate rejected it.

The country was soon afterward violently agitated by discussions on the subject of annexation. The chief point of antagonism lay in the slavery question, the friends of that institution being all in favor of the measure, while its opponents were firmly opposed to it, for they regarded it as a plan for strengthening the political power of the slave-labor States; also because it would surely lead to a war with Mexico, for that government had never given up its claim to Texas as one of the States of the Republic. This question entered largely into the canvass for the Presidency in 1844.

For that high office James K. Polk, of Tennessee, who was warmly in favor of the annexation of Texas, was nominated by the Democrats, and George M. Dallas, of Pennsylvania, was named for Vice-President. They were elected over the opposing Whig candidates, Henry Clay, of Kentucky, and Theodore Frelinghuysen, of New Jersey.

The region known as Oregon had been a matter of dispute at an early day, between the United States and Great Britain. In the year 1792, Captain Gray, of Boston, in the ship *Columbia*, entered the mouth of the great river of that region and gave the name of his vessel to the stream. When a report of this fact was pressed upon the attention of President Jefferson, he sent Captains Lewis and Clark on an overland expedition to the Pacific Coast at the mouth of that river. The exploration was accomplished in 1804-1806; and this transaction, with the discovery by Captain Gray, gave to the United States a title to the region watered by the Columbia River, according to the British interpretation of the law of nations. The region so watered extended to the parallel of 54° 40' north latitude. By the purchase of Louisiana, in 1803, the United States acquired whatever title to that domain France had possessed. But the British government, instigated by the Hudson's Bay Company, claimed Oregon. Finally, by a treaty made in 1818, it was agreed that citizens of both nations should jointly occupy it for ten years. This was renewed for an indefinite period, each party having the right to end the agreement at any time by giving twelve months' notice to the other. Such notice was given by the United States in 1839, and preparations were made for the occupation of the territory by American citizens. Great Britain then claimed the whole of Oregon. The United States offered to compromise by drawing the northern line of its possessions there, along the parallel of 49° 40'. The British persisted in their claim, and during the political canvass of 1844, "Texas" and "Oregon" became a part of the battle-

cry of the Democrats. At their convention in Baltimore they had declared by resolution "that our title to the whole of the territory of Oregon is clear and unquestionable; that no portion of the same ought to be ceded to England or any other power; and that the reoccupation of Oregon and the reannexation of Texas (it had been claimed as a part of Louisiana, purchased of France) at the earliest practicable period, are great American measures which this convention recommends to the cordial support of the democracy of the Union." The former proposition was popular in the North, and the latter was popular in the South and secured the election of Polk and Dallas. The war-cry of "Fifty-four forty, or fight!" was often heard during the canvass. A compromise was finally effected with Great Britain. The northern boundary of our Republic in that region was fixed at the parallel of 49°; and in 1848 the Territory of Oregon was organized. In February, 1859, it was admitted into the Union as a State.

The closing act of Mr. Tyler's administration was an imitation of President Jackson's "pocket veto." A bill making appropriations for certain harbors and rivers had passed both houses at near the close of the session, and was sent to the President for his signature. He retained it until the session had closed; and so, without formally vetoing it, he prevented its becoming a law.

At the close of his administration, on the 4th of March, 1845, Mr. Tyler, the tenth President of the United States, and then fifty-five years of age, retired to private life, where he remained a greatly respected "private citizen" until the civil war broke out, when he took an active part with the enemies of the Republic. He died at Richmond, Virginia, in January, 1862.

POLK'S ADMINISTRATION.

The administration of Polk is one of the most successful in our history, viewed from a material standard. He entered office with a definite purpose in

view and accomplished it. In spite of all attempts at sophistry, the real issue in 1844 was the annexation of Texas. If it had been a question of the extension of slavery within our own border, Clay would have won. But the annexation of Texas seemed in itself so desirable that the slavery question was put in the background and the issue at best was a mixed one. Clay was evasive on the issue for Southern consumption, which not only did him no good, but lost to him support in the North. The issue of slavery extension had been rising for years. The handful of men and women who followed Garrison and Birney had no strength in politics, but they created an issue which ripened rapidly in later years. John Quincy Adams was no doctrinaire, but he stood by his guns and fought for the right of petition until he won. The Old Man Eloquent reached his highest fame when he compelled by logic, by invective, and by an aroused moral sentiment an unwilling Congress to obey the Constitution. The tactics of the opposition were bad from the start. The slavery propaganda made one continuous series of errors, which finally caused the overthrow of their domestic institution.

Van Buren's administration failed, because it inherited all the ills arising out of Jackson's bad policy. Tyler's failed because he turned apostate, and yet the failure is, in a political sense only, for Tyler's was a good administration, and the country prospered, while National finances were carefully looked after. Tyler never was a Whig at heart, and made a mistake in enlisting under that party's banner if he did not subscribe to its doctrine. But Polk was a thorough disciple of Jeffersonian Democracy, who had learned his lessons well. He entered the Presidency resolved to secure the annexation of Texas at any cost, and he succeeded. The country had a successful foreign war, greatly increased its territory, and added to its prestige abroad. For his advisers Polk choose: James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, Secretary of State; Robert J. Walker, of Missis-

siippi, Secretary of the Treasury; William L. Marcy, of New York, Secretary of War; George Bancroft, of Massachusetts, Secretary of the Navy; Cave Johnson, of Tennessee, Postmaster-General, and John Y. Mason, of Virginia, Attorney-General.

Victorious as the party has been, it was by no means harmonious, particularly in the great pivotal State of New York, there were differences on public questions which required delicate adjustment to keep in line. There a clear issue on the slavery extension question would have defeated Polk, and there in 1848 it did defeat his party's successor.

Aside from the Texas issue, which was complicated by the fear that both France and Great Britain were coquetting for control, the Oregon question was an important one. We laid claim to the Oregon country from the forty-second parallel of latitude to 54 degrees 40 minutes, under various claims of discovery, exploration and purchase. The issue had been long neglected, but had recently risen into importance, and the time had now come for a decision. Taking a false cue, the Democrats raised the cry of "Fifty-four forty or fight," but that was a blind. Polk was willing to cede something in the wilderness of the Northwest for the sake of being let alone in the Texas matter, and a treaty with Great Britain finally fixed the Forty-ninth parallel to Puget's Sound as our boundary after negotiations had been suspended and a rupture was feared.

Tyler's messenger, despatched in haste to deal with the subject, found Texas waiting. The Lone Star Republic declared for annexation with boundaries of her own choosing, and in December, 1846, the resolution of annexation passed Congress, and was duly signed.

The high-tariff men who had been convinced that Polk and his party were protectionists equally with Whigs soon had a rude awakening. Walker was a shrewd financier, and no mean politician. He prepared a tariff measure which was not only a purely revenue producer, but had the original idea of

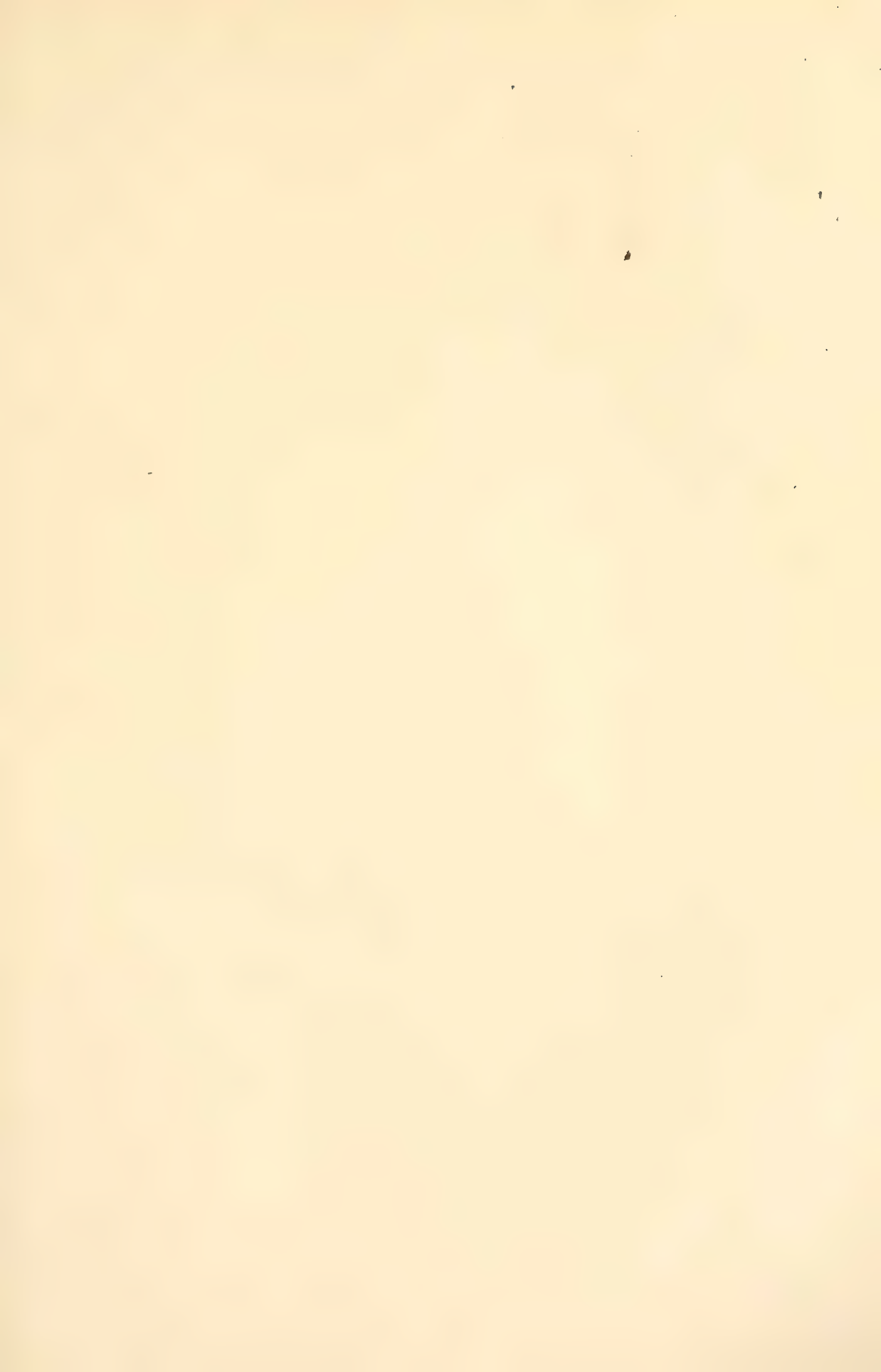
levying duties on the value of the importations and not the mass. The *ad valorem* idea was correct in theory, but opened the door to innumerable frauds. The Walker tariff was driven through Congress by whip and spur. In the Senate it prevailed solely by the casting vote of Dallas, who was from the greatest protection State in the Union. Terrible was the wrath of the Whigs, but they suffered from their own lack of moral convictions. Their shifty position had cost them dear. Nevertheless the Walker tariff was a good revenue producer and remained unchanged, except in a few particulars, up to the outbreak of the civil war.

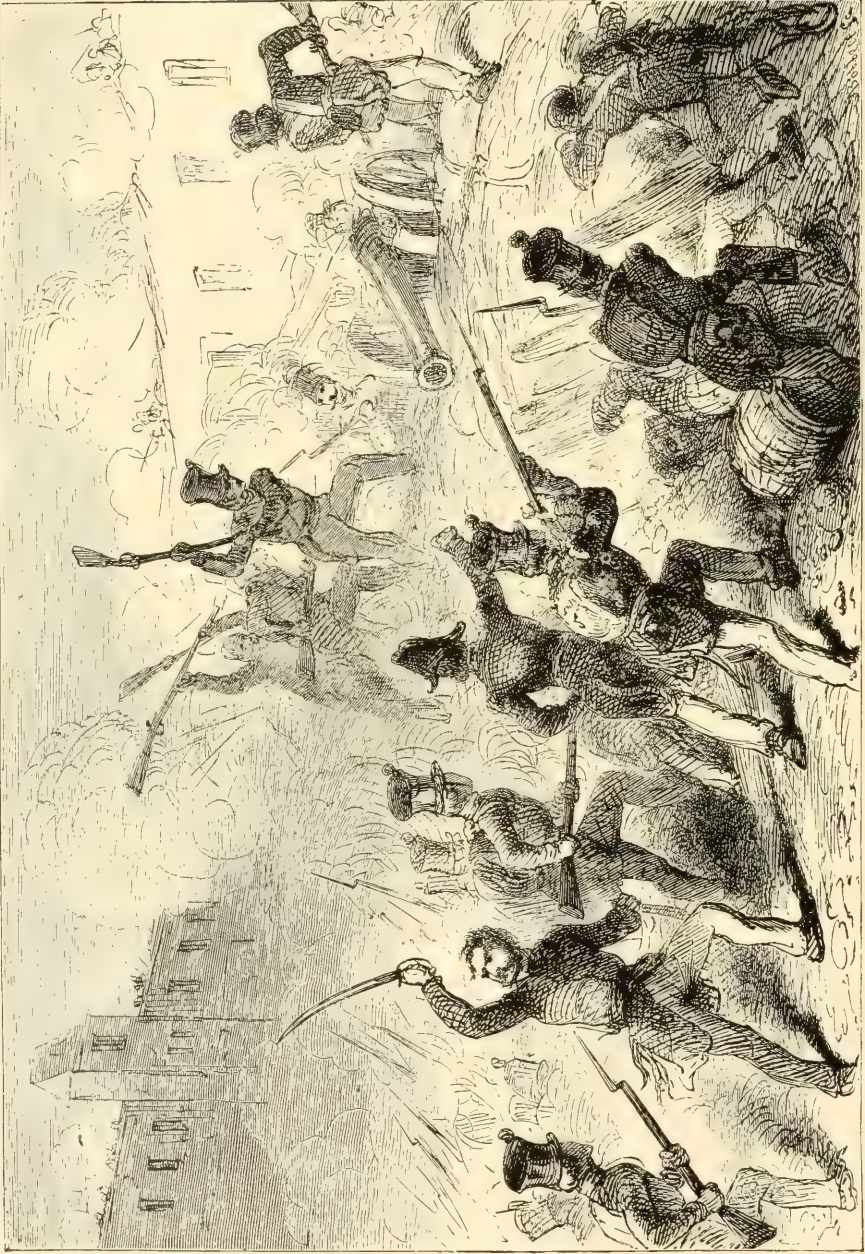
The annexation of Texas meant war with Mexico. The desire of the administration was to throw the burden of beginning it on Mexico, and this was shrewdly accomplished. Colonel and Brevet Brigadier-General Zachary Taylor was sent to Corpus Christi, Texas, with a small army "to observe" and was finally ordered to the east bank of the Rio Grande with Point Isabel as his base. Texas had generously voted itself territory to the Rio Grande, and immense tracts in the Northwest. This was presumptuous as under Mexican dominion she had less territory than the present State contains. Beyond the Colorado, or at most, the Nueces, the territory certainly was in dispute. Across this latter territory Taylor, according to orders, marched to a point opposite Matamoras and erected a fort. Leaving a small garrison in Fort Brown, he marched to his base. Hearing that the fort was attacked, he started to relieve it, and on the way fought the battles of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma, May 8 and 9, 1846, defeating superior forces after sharp contests. Compared with later battles, the casualties were not large, but reports of them created the greatest excitement in the United States. As we had annexed the soil on which the battles were fought, Polk sent a message to Congress announcing that a state of war existed by the act of Mexico in shedding American blood on American soil. It is true that many

people denied that the soil was incontestably American, but the war fever rose high and Congress promptly responded. Fifty thousand volunteers were called for, and money voted for the war without stint. Taylor was ordered to move forward into Mexico, and the war began in earnest.

Mexico, which had recently suffered severely from revolutions and internal disorders, resolved on making a brave resistance, and, considering her resources, she did well. It was not along the Rio Grande alone that she had her fears. California was even in these days, before gold was thought of, looked upon as desirable territory, and several "exploring" expeditions had been sent thither. John C. Frémont, son-in-law of Senator Benton, had gained the title of "Pathfinder" in 1842 and 1843 by crossing the Rocky Mountains into California, and exploring most of the country west of the range. In August, 1846, General Kearney marched on Santa Fé, New Mexico, and captured it, and there a part of his forces marched across to meet Taylor. Frémont led a small force to California, and in connection with the navy, easily seized the whole of the Pacific Coast almost without loss.

Thus stood the situation when Congress met in December, 1846. In truth, the people were by no means unanimously satisfied with the way the war had been brought on. Polk was blamed for unnecessarily precipitating it at a time when he had asked for an appropriation to negotiate with Mexico for a purchase and settlement of the issue. In the summer of 1846, Congress was ready to give \$2,000,000 for the purpose, but an amendment was offered to the appropriation which killed it. This amendment, known in history as the Wilmot Proviso, from David Wilmot, of Pennsylvania, who offered it, provided that no part of the territory to be purchased with the money should be open to slavery. As it was desired to gain territory in California for the sole purpose of making slave States, the Southern people would not have it, and so the bill fell. This





THE TAKING OF MONTEREY

Proviso was offered at each session for several years, became the new rallying cry in politics, and at last furnished the Whigs with a moral issue which they did not wholly adopt.

Congress could not refuse war bills, and the conquest of Mexico went on. Troops were rushed to the Rio Grande. Taylor moved across the river, took Matamoras, and then moved westward to Monterey, which was naturally a strong position, and defended by a large garrison. After careful investment the place was assaulted and fell in September, after heavy losses on both sides. This victory still further aroused enthusiasm in the United States, and Taylor was the hero of the hour. The administration was greatly embarrassed by the praise of Taylor, who was a Southern man and a Whig, though he was absolutely no politician. The commander of the army was Winfield Scott, also a Whig, but with decided ambitions. There was no Democratic General in the army to rank either of these, and the administration was by no means inclined to make Whig heroes. Polk thought at one time of making Benton a Lieutenant-General, but this fell through. Scott, naturally, wanted to go to Mexico, and lead the army to victory, and prepared a plan for landnig at Vera Cruz, and marching to the capital over the route followed by Cortez. After long hesitation, and when no other course was open, Polk consented, and Scott started for the front. Calling at Point Isabel, he took most of Taylor's regulars there without seeing him, and sailed for Vera Cruz. After a bombardment by the navy that city fell March 29, 1847, and Scott prepared to march his little army to the interior.

In the meantime, Taylor had marched westward, and nothing had been heard from him for a long time. Santa Anna, once more in power, had raised a large army and prepared to destroy him. On February 23, 1847, Taylor took up a strong position at Buena Vista, and defeated Santa Anna in the hardest fought battle of the war, against terrible odds, for most of his

small force was composed of raw troops. Santa Anna then withdrew and marched overland to meet Scott. The victory of Buena Vista was the most brilliant of the war, and made the modest Taylor a Presidential candidate in spite of himself. Scott moved his small army with order and precision toward the capital. His force was far less than he had been promised, but he moved ahead until he came to the pass of Cerro Gordo, where the road enters a ravine, flanked on each side by high mountains. By almost superhuman exertions, Santa Anna had raised another army to oppose the invaders. It appeared at first sight that the Mexican position was impregnable, but Scott, who was an able General, in spite of some personal eccentricities, detected one weak spot, sent a detachment to take it, and finally drove Santa Anna's army in wild flight to the rear, April 17, 1847, after a most brilliantly planned and executed battle. Marching on leisurely, no resistance was encountered until in the neighborhood of the City of Mexico. At Contreras, Santa Anna was again defeated, August 20, while other victories were at Churubusco and San Antonio on the same day. The Americans were outnumbered, but they fought desperately, and won against great odds. Scott now was almost at the gates of the capital, when Nicholas Trist, of the State Department, arrived to negotiate a treaty, much to the disgust of General Scott. An armistice was concluded, but the negotiations came to nothing, and early in September, fighting was renewed. The high castle of Chapultepec was assaulted, and Molino del Rey captured, September 7-8, after hard fighting. The castle was finally taken by assault on the 13th, and the city fell. This practically ended the war, in which our arms were ever victorious, and which proved a training school for young officers, who fought on both sides in the Civil War.

The treaty of peace was agreed on early in 1848, and ratified by both nations, by which Mexico yielded all the territory then known as New Mexico

and California, but including also the present State of Nevada, part of Colorado, and all of Arizona. To salve National conscience a large sum was paid for this territory.

The Congress which met in 1847 was in no friendly mood toward the administration. The Whigs elected Robert C. Winthrop, of Massachusetts, Speaker, and gave the administration money for the war, but no political support. In this Congress appeared Abraham Lincoln, who, as a Whig, supported the war bills, but invariably voted for the Wilmot Proviso, which struck at the root of the administration policy. Indeed the Whigs had been gaining ground in State elections, so that they hoped to carry the next National election, and were disposed to do as little for Polk as possible. He was allowed to conquer Mexico, but his party was deprived of the fruits of victory. While this Congress was in session and the slavery question was being agitated, John Quincy Adams fell over his seat unconscious, and died sixty hours later, February 23, in the Speaker's room.

There was no doubt that Taylor was the Whig favorite for the Presidential nomination. "Old Rough and Ready," who had served nearly all his life in the army, was no politician, and had no ambitions until his victories created a sentiment he could not ignore. He did not seek the office, and doubted his fitness, but the popular demand was for him. Clay was again a candidate, and so was Webster. Naturally neither looked with favor on a candidate without political experience, who had never been heard of until a few months before. The Whig convention met in Philadelphia, June 7, 1848, and nominated Taylor on the fourth ballot. The second honor was offered to Webster, who refused, and it went to Millard Fillmore, of New York. Taylor had written a letter to a friend before the convention expressing modestly his views on public questions, which so pleased the convention that they did

not even adopt a platform. The Whigs were generally pleased with the ticket outside of party leaders, who could not believe it possible a mere military chieftain could be preferred before the wheel horses. Both Webster and Clay were bitter in denunciation of the ticket, though at last they gave a grudging consent to it. Clay had been out of the Senate for some time, and now felt that his public career was ended.

And now appeared that split in the Democracy long foreseen, but which up to this time had not been fatal. While there were Whigs with moral ideas, the party program was almost exclusively a commercial one. Moral ideas now split the Democracy in twain. The war was over, and we had gained an immense territory in the West. The Southern people earnestly desired that this be divided up into slave States to offset the rapidly increasing number of free States in the Northwest. But there was a sentiment opposed to this that was not confined to party lines. Slavery was becoming recognized as a moral evil, and while no one in authority was disposed to interfere with slavery where it existed, there was a rapidly growing feeling that the Wilmot Proviso was the proper stand, and so many Northern Democrats had no desire to see California and New Mexico cut up into slave States.

The Democrats had nominated General Lewis Cass, of Michigan, for President, and William O. Butler, of Kentucky, for Vice-President, at a convention held in Baltimore.

Van Buren was nominated by the Free Soil Democracy for the Presidency, with Charles Francis Adams as running mate. This third party movement did not carry a single State, but it elected Taylor. The electoral vote stood: Taylor, 163; Cass, 127; New York once more turning the scale, giving more votes to Van Buren than to Cass. The popular vote stood: Van Buren, 291,263; Cass, 1,220,544; Taylor, 1,360,101.

ADMINISTRATIONS OF TAYLOR AND FILLMORE.

General Taylor was eminently a "plain, blunt man," with no pretensions to polished manners, but with every characteristic of a true gentleman. He chose for his constitutional advisers John M. Clayton for Secretary of State; William M. Meredith, Secretary of the Treasury; George N. Crawford, Secretary of War; William B. Preston, Secretary of the Navy; Thomas Ewing, Secretary of the Interior, a department which had just been created; Jacob Col-lamer, Postmaster-General, and Rev-erdy Johnson, Attorney-General.

President Taylor's administration was marked by events which led to very important results. In August, 1849, General Riley, then military governor of California, summoned a convention of delegates to meet at Monterey, on the Pacific coast, to form a State constitution. California had not yet been organized as a Territory; but it was so rapidly filling up with the elements of a new and powerful State, that its speedy admission into the Union as such seemed probable. These elements were then principally goldseekers, who were mostly enterprising young men. The convention met, and on the first of September (1849) they adopted a State constitution, an article of which excluded slavery from that Territory forever. This action—the actual formation of a State by the voice of the people—was accomplished twenty months after gold was first found at Sutter's Mill. It produced warm debates in and out of Congress, and excited a violent controversy throughout the republic on the subject of slavery, which ended only when that institution was utterly destroyed.

Under their State constitution, the Californians elected Edward Gilbert and G. H. Wright, delegates to the National House of Representatives; and the State Legislature, at its first session, appointed John Charles Fremont and William M. Gwinn, United States Senators. The latter carried the State

constitution with them to Washington city, and in February they presented a petition to Congress, praying for the admission of California into the Union of States. It was perceived that a compromise on the subject of slavery must be effected to avail serious difficulty, for the supporters of the system of slave-labor declared their intention to dismember the republic, if California should be admitted into the Union with its constitution forbidding the existence of slavery in that domain. A joint resolution was offered for the appointment of a committee of thirteen to consider the subject of territorial government for California, New Mexico Deseret (the latter settled chiefly by a Mormon community), with instructions to report a plan of compromise embracing all the questions then arising out of the institution of slavery. The resolution was adopted in April, and Mr. Clay was made chairman of the committee. He had already submitted a plan of compromise to the Senate, and spoke eloquently in favor of it; and on the 8th of May he, in behalf of the committee of thirteen, reported a bill intended as a pacificator. It provided for the admission of California as a State; for a territorial government for New Mexico and Deseret or Utah; for a law which would compel the return, to their masters, of all fugitive slaves; for the suppression of the slave-trade in the District of Columbia, and for a settlement of the boundary of Texas. This bill, containing such a variety of important propositions, was called the "Omnibus Bill," but as a whole it was known as the Compromise Act. It was not satisfactory to the slaveholders, notwithstanding its large concessions to their interests; and in June they held a convention at Nashville, in Tennessee, and by resolutions presented to the country alternatives for the settlement of the controversy, namely, the security, by an enactment of Congress, of protection to their property in slaves, for those who should choose to emigrate into any of the Territories, or a partition of the Territories between the free

and slave labor sections of the Union, on the basis of the Missouri Compromise.

For four months a discussion and a controversy, which shook the republic to its very foundations, was carried on in Congress and among the people—a controversy on the slavery question more violent than any which had yet occurred. The Compromise Act was violently opposed in both sections of the Union, but, of course, on opposite grounds. The extreme pro-slavery men regarded it as a surrender of their most vital claims, to the political sentimentality of the North; and they resolved not to submit to it. Threats of disunion were loud, violent and numerous; and opposition to the Compromise took the shape of a political party first in Mississippi, with Jefferson Davis as leader. It spread into other slave-holding States, and appeared formidable. The opposition to the measure in the Northern States was comparatively feeble; but there was a powerful minority in these free-labor States who were strenuously opposed to the Fugitive Slave law, which formed a part of the Compromise, as unworthy of the sanction of a civilized nation. Yet the majority of the northern people acquiesced in the measure because it promised peace and the maintenance of the commercial prosperity which then prevailed.

In the midst of the excitement occasioned by this controversy, the country was startled by the death of the President, caused by bilious fever, which occurred on the 9th of July, 1850, when he was in the sixty-fifth year of his age. There was much real mourning on account of his death, for the reflecting men of all parties relied upon his justice, integrity and firmness in the right, in that hour of apparent peril to the republic. Millard Fillmore, the Vice-President, became the constitutional successor of President Taylor, and on the day after the death of the latter, Mr. Fillmore took the prescribed oath of office as President of the United States. On the following day, William R. King, of Alabama, was elected presi-

dent *pro tempore* of the Senate, and became acting Vice-President.

The several members of the cabinet of President Taylor tendered their resignations to Mr. Fillmore, who accepted them and immediately nominated others for his constitutional advisers. These were Daniel Webster, Secretary of State; Thomas Corwin, Secretary of the Treasury; Charles M. Conrad, Secretary of War; William A. Graham, Secretary of the Navy; Alexander H. H. Stuart, Secretary of the Interior; Nathan K. Hall, Postmaster-General, and John J. Crittenden, Attorney-General. These names impressed the people with confidence in the administration of Mr. Fillmore.

The most important measures of the government that were pending at the death of President Taylor, and which claimed the early attention of President Fillmore, were the several bills included in the Compromise Act. These were all adopted, with slight modifications, and became laws in the month of September by receiving the signature of the President. Mr. Seward offered an amendment to the act for the suppression of the slave trade in the District of Columbia, which provided "That slavery in the District be entirely abrogated; that its abolition depend on the vote of the inhabitants; and that in case, on such vote being taken, it should be in favor of emancipation, the sum of two hundred thousand dollars be appropriated to pay the owners of the slaves for whatever loss they may suffer." This amendment, after a brief discussion, was rejected by five yeas to forty-five nays.

During Taylor's administration, some unpleasant feeling had been engendered between the governments of the United States and Spain, by an invasion of Cuba by a military force organized in this country. It will be observed hereafter that the men and measures connected with these movements, were intimately associated with the actors in, and the preliminary events of the late Civil War. General Lopez, a native of Cuba, who led an expedition to that island from the United States, was

backed by many men who were conspicuous in the secession movements ten years later. The avowed object of the invasion was to stir up the Creoles, or native Cubans, to a revolt for the purpose of overthrowing the local government, casting off the Spanish yoke, and forming an independent State. No doubt this was the principal and perhaps the only design of Lopez, but not of the politicians at his back. *Their* chief object undoubtedly was to seize Cuba, and make it a part of a great slave empire of the South—a proposition shamelessly set forth in the discreditable "Ostend Manifesto" of a later day. Lopez and his followers landed at Cardenas, in Cuba, at the middle of April, 1850, where he expected to be joined by some of the Spanish troops and a host of native Cubans and with them overthrow the government of the island. He was disappointed. The troops and people did not appear to co-operate with him, and he returned to the United States to prepare for a more formidable invasion.

The introduction of the Compromise Act, the invasion of Cuba and the admission of one State and three Territories into the Union, were the most prominent features of President Taylor's administration. That State was California; the Territories were New Mexico, Utah and Minnesota. The name of the latter is the Indian title of the River St. Peter, a large tributary of the Upper Mississippi, and means sky-colored water.

Allusion has been made to the Mormons in Utah. Their history is a most remarkable one. About fifty years ago, a young man named Joseph Smith, a native of Vermont, pretended to have revelations from heaven. In one of these he was directed to go to a hill near Palmyra, New York, where he would find a record of the ancient inhabitants of America and a new gospel for mankind, written centuries before on plates of gold, in unknown characters and languages. From these plates (it was alleged) Smith, sitting behind a blanket to prevent their being seen by profane eyes, read the in-

scriptions which were written down by a scribe who was not permitted to see the "leaves of gold." This copy was published under the name of "The Book of Mormon." The true story, as ascertained by investigation, appears to be, that the Rev. Solomon Spaulding, many years before, wrote a work of fiction, founded upon the theory that our continent was peopled by the "lost tribes of Israel;" that the manuscript came, by accident, into the hands of Smith, and that he read to his scribe from the manuscript, and not from any plates containing mysterious characters.

Smith found dupes and followers, and in 1830 he established a "church" with thirty members. He was assisted in his work by Sidney Rigdon, who, it was said, had become possessed of Spaulding's manuscript and placed it in the hands of Smith. The latter pretended to be governed by continual revelations from heaven; and in accordance with one of them, he led his deluded followers to Kirtland, Ohio, where they built a temple and remained several years, until the conduct of the leaders became so obnoxious that they were compelled to leave. They established themselves in Hancock county, Illinois, where they founded the city of Nauvoo, and built a temple. Meanwhile they had attempted to plant themselves in Missouri, but they were expelled by the exasperated people, who were assisted by the civil and military powers. At Kirtland, they were joined by a shrewd young man named Brigham Young, a native of Vermont, who was president of the Mormon church more than thirty years. It was at Nauvoo that the system of polygamy was first practiced among them, and Young has ever been foremost among its defenders. That system was established in consequence of the jealousy of Smith's wife because of his intimacies with other women. In justification of his immoral conduct, Smith had a special revelation from heaven, authorizing polygamy, and declaring that the greater number of wives a man possessed the greater would be his future reward; also that the women who con-

sented to share the honors of wifehood with others would thereby be assured of eternal happiness.

This "revelation" led to events which resulted in the imprisonment of Smith and some of his intimate associates. The "prophet" and his brother were shot dead by a mob at the prison; and their followers, in 1845, prepared for an exodus, led by Brigham Young, who had succeeded to the presidency of the Mormon church, on the death of Smith. They finally crossed the Mississippi and penetrated to the valley of the Great Salt Lake, where, in 1848, they seated themselves in a most picturesque region, founded a city and built a temple. In 1849 President Fillmore appointed Young governor of that territory named Utah. The Mormons now number, in our own and other countries, probably, more than two hundred thousand souls. They have, from time to time, given our government considerable trouble, by their defiance of its laws.

It was believed by superficial thinkers and observers that the Compromise Act of 1850 had quieted forever all controversy on the subject of slavery; and during his entire administration President Fillmore gave his support to all the measures embraced in that act. When his administration closed in the spring of 1853, there seemed to be very little uneasiness in the public mind on the subject of slavery. But it was only the ominous calm that precedes the bursting of a tempest. The moral sense of the people in the free-labor States (and of thousands in the slave-labor States) had been shocked by the passage of the Fugitive-Slave Law, which compelled every person to become a slave-catcher, under certain circumstances, willing or not willing.

In 1851, General Lopez renewed his attempt to cause an insurrectionary movement in Cuba, by landing a strong military force, organized in this country, upon its shores. Again Lopez found the Cubans unwilling to revolt. He became a fugitive and at near the close of August, he and six of his fol-

lowers were arrested, taken to Havana, and executed.

At the same time our government was making peaceful acquisitions of territory in the northwest by the purchase from the Sioux Indians of millions of acres of fertile lands beyond the Mississippi, in the newly organized Territory of Minnesota.

Toward the close of the same year, our government reaffirmed its policy of non-interference with the domestic affairs of European nations, under peculiar circumstances. In December, Louis Kossuth, the exiled governor of Hungary, arrived in the United States to plead the cause of his country-men, who were struggling for their independence of the rule of Austria, and to ask for material aid from our government. The President, however, at his first interview with Kossuth, told him frankly that our policy of non-interference would not allow our government to give him any material aid. This was afforded, to a considerable extent, by private subscriptions.

There was a little ruffling of the good feeling between the governments of the United States and Great Britain, in 1852, in consequence of the alleged violation by American fishers off the coast of British America. The dispute was amicably settled by mutual concessions.

Owing to our increasing intercourse with Asia across the Pacific Ocean, friendly relations with the Japanese was desirable. To establish such amity, our government sent a squadron of seven vessels, commanded by Commodore M. C. Perry, in the summer of 1853, to convey a letter from the President of the United States to the Emperor of Japan, asking him to consent to the negotiation of a treaty of friendship and commerce between the two governments. The mission was successful, and friendly relations were then established between the two countries.

The sympathy manifested by a large portion of the people of the United States in the efforts of Lopez in Cuba, gave rise to suspicions in Europe that it was the policy of our government to

ultimately possess that island and assume control over the Gulf of Mexico (the open door to California) and the West India Islands, which were owned chiefly by France and England. To prevent such a result, the governments of these two countries asked that of the United States to enter into a treaty with them, which should secure Cuba to Spain, by agreeing to disclaim "now and forever hereafter, all intention to obtain possession of the Island of Cuba," and "to discountenance all such attempts, to that effect, on the part of any individual or power whatever." To this invitation our Secretary of State (Edward Everett) replied, in the spirit of the "Monroe Doctrine," that the question was an American and not an European one, and not properly within the scope of the interference of European cabinets; that the United States did not intend to violate any existing neutrality laws; that the government claimed the right to act in relation to Cuba independent of any other power, and that it could not see with indifference "the island of Cuba fall into the hands of any other power than Spain."

When Mr. Fillmore's administration was drawing to a close, nominations for his successor were made. A Democratic national convention assembled at Baltimore in June, 1852, nominated General Franklin Pierce of New Hampshire, for President, and William R. King of Alabama for Vice-President. A Whig national convention assembled at the same place in the same month, and nominated General Winfield Scott for President and William A. Graham of North Carolina for Vice-President. The Democratic nominees were elected, and on the 4th of March, 1853, President Fillmore retired to private life. One of the most important of the closing events of his administration was the creation, by act of Congress, of a new Territory called Washington, which was carved out of the northern part of Oregon. The bill for this purpose became a law on the 2d of March, 1853.

FRANKLIN PIERCE'S ADMINISTRATION.

General Pierce took the oath of office as President of the United States upon a platform of New Hampshire pine, which had been erected at the eastern portico of the Capitol. It was administered in the presence of thousands of people, who stood in a storm of driving sleet as witnesses of the august ceremony. President Pierce chose for his cabinet William L. Marcy, Secretary of State; James Guthrie, Secretary of the Treasury; Jefferson Davis, Secretary of War; James C. Dobbin, Secretary of the Navy; Robert McClelland, Secretary of the Interior; James Campbell, Postmaster-General, and Caleb Cushing, Attorney-General.

Important American explorations by sea and land, in the interests of commerce, marked the earlier portion of Pierce's administration. The acquisition of California opened the way for an immense commercial interest on our Pacific coast; and in the spring of 1853, Congress sent four armed vessels to the eastern shores of Asia, by way of Cape Horn, to explore the region of the Pacific Ocean, which, it was evident, would soon be traversed by American steamships plying between the ports of our western frontier and Japan and China. At the same time plans were maturing for the construction of a railway across the continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. Congress, in the summer of 1853, sent out four surveying expeditions to explore as many routes along the general course of four degrees of latitude. One of these lines of railway, known as the Union Pacific, was completed in the spring of 1869.

At that time the government of the Sandwich Islands was making overtures for the annexation of that ocean-empire to our republic. This aroused the jealousy of France and England, who felt disposed to interfere in the matter. A change of rulers in the islands, put an end to the matter. A

dispute in relation to the boundary line between New Mexico and the Province of Chihuahua, in old Mexico, threatened to produce war, but it was happily diverted by diplomacy. With the government of Austria there were some unpleasant relations about that time, growing out of the protecting power of our government in the case of a naturalized citizen. A Hungarian exile, named Kozta, had become naturalized here. While engaged in business in Smyrna, he was seized by order of the Austrian consul-general and placed on board a brig to be sent to Trieste as a refugee. The *St. Louis*, one of our naval vessels, was then in the harbor of Smyrna, and her commander (Captain Ingraham) claimed Kozta as a citizen of the United States and demanded his release. It was refused, and Ingraham cleared his ship for action. This argument was effectual, and Kozta was delivered up on board the *St. Louis*. Congress showed their approval of the conduct of their servant by voting Ingraham a sword. Austria was offended, but no serious difficulty ensued. This protection of an humble citizen of the United States, in a foreign land, increased the respect for our government and flag abroad.

An unexpected movement now aroused a vehement discussion of the slavery question. In January, 1854, Senator Stephen A. Douglas presented a bill in the Senate for the erection of two vast Territories in mid-continent, to be called, respectively, Kansas and Nebraska. The bill provided for giving permission to the inhabitants of those Territories to decide for themselves whether slavery should or should not exist within their domain. This proposed nullification of the Missouri Compromise produced rancorous controversies in and out of Congress, and the people of the free-labor States became violently excited. After long and bitter discussions in both Houses of Congress, the bill became a law in May following. The people of the North thought they perceived in this measure a determination to make slavery national; and the boast of

Robert Toombs, of Georgia, that he would yet "call the roll of his slaves on Bunker Hill," seemed likely not to be an idle one. While this irritating subject was under discussion, fresh difficulties with Spain appeared. The Spanish authorities in Cuba seized the American steamship *Black Warrior* and confiscated her cargo, under some pretence of her violating the neutrality laws. Our government, satisfied of the flagrancy of the act, was disposed to suspend those laws. A special messenger was sent to the Spanish government at Madrid to lay the case before the imperial authorities. The Cuban officials, becoming alarmed, proposed to deliver up the vessel and cargo on the payment of a fine, by her owners, of six thousand dollars. It was paid under protest, and the affair was amicably settled by the governments.

In the light of historic events, it is clear to-day, that men who afterward appeared as leaders in the war against our government, were then concocting and executing schemes for the extension of the domains of the slave system. It must expand or suffocate. They contrived and put in motion expeditions for conquering neighboring provinces, in the southwest, under various prettexts, and their acts were rebuked by our government. They formed a design to conquer parts of Mexico, and also Central America; and the theatre of their first practically successful endeavors was on the northern portion of the great isthmus, between North and South America. The first movement was an armed "emigration" into Nicaragua, with peaceful professions, led by Colonel H. L. Kinney. This was followed by an armed invasion by Californians, led by William Walker, first, of provinces in Mexico, and then of the State of Nicaragua. Walker also made peaceful professions on landing, but the next day he cast off the mask and attempted to capture a town. He was soon driven out by Nicaraguan troops, and escaped in a schooner. He soon reappeared with a stronger force (September, 1855), when the country was

in a state of revolution, and pushed his scheme of conquest so vigorously that he seized the capital of the State (Grenada), in October, and placed one of his followers (a Nicaraguan) in the presidential chair. He also strengthened his power by armed "emigrants" who came from the slave-labor States. The other governments on the isthmus were alarmed for their own safety, and in the winter of 1856 they formed an alliance for expelling the invaders. Troops from Costa Rica marched into Nicaragua, but were soon driven out by Walker's forces. So firm was his grasp that he caused himself to be elected President of Nicaragua; and the government at Washington hastened to acknowledge the new "nation," by cordially receiving Walker's ambassador in the person of a Roman Catholic priest, named Vigil. For two years this usurper ruled that State with a high hand, and offended commercial nations by his interference with trade. At length the combined powers on the isthmus crushed him. In May, 1857, he was compelled to surrender the remnant of his army, but escaped himself through the interposition of Commodore Davis of our navy. Late in the same year he reappeared in Central America, when he was seized, with his followers, by Commodore Paulding, and sent to New York as an offender against neutrality laws. The President (Buchanan) *privately* commended Paulding for his action, but for "prudential reasons," as he said, he publicly condemned the commander in a message to Congress, for "thus violating the sovereignty of a foreign country." Walker was allowed to go free, when he fitted out another expedition and sailed from Mobile. He was arrested only for leaving port without a clearance, and was tried and acquitted by the supreme court at New Orleans. Then he went again to Nicaragua, where he made much mischief, and was finally captured and shot at Truxillo.

Settlers in the Territories of Oregon and Washington, on the Pacific coast,

had trouble with the Indians there in 1855, who went out in parties to plunder and murder. General Wool, then stationed at San Francisco, went up to Portland, in Oregon, to arrange a campaign against them. The savages were so well organized in both Territories that, at one time, it appeared as if the white settlers would be compelled to abandon the country. The Indians were subdued in 1856, but for a long time restlessness appeared among the tribes of the Rocky Mountains. It was generally believed that they were incited to hostilities by the employes of the Hudson's Bay Company, in British Columbia. At the same time the friendly relations between Great Britain and the United States were somewhat disturbed by the enlistment, in our country, of recruits for the British Army, then operating against Russia in the Crimean Peninsula. This violation of neutrality laws had been done with the sanction of British officials here, among whom was the British minister at Washington. The minister and the British consuls at New York, Philadelphia and Cincinnati, were dismissed by our government. There was much irritation felt by the British cabinet for some time; but as our government was clearly in the right, a new minister and new consuls were soon sent hither.

Our country, at this juncture, was approaching that great crisis which appeared in the dreadful aspect of civil war—a tremendous conflict between Freedom and Slavery for supremacy in the republic. With the enactment and enforcement of the Fugitive-Slave Law and the virtual repeal of the Missouri Compromise Act, in the case of Kansas and Nebraska, the important question was forced upon the attention of the whole people of the land, "Shall the domain of our republic be the theatre of all free or all slave labor, with the corresponding civilization of each as a consequence?" The time had come when one or the other of these social systems must prevail in all parts of the land. Part free and part slave was a condition no longer to be toler-

ated, for it meant perpetual war. The supporters of the slave-system, encouraged by their recent triumphs, had full faith in their ability to win other and more decisive victories, and did not permit themselves to doubt their ultimate possession of the field, so they sounded the trumpet for their hosts to rally and prepare for the struggle. Kansas was the chosen field for the preliminary skirmishing. It lay nearest to the settled States; it was bordered on the east by a slave-labor State, and it was easy of access from the South. On the surface of society they saw only insignificant ripples of opposition. They began to colonize the Territory; and, flushed with what seemed to be well-assured success, they cast down the gauntlet of defiance at the feet of the friends of free-labor in the nation.

That gauntlet was quickly taken up by their opponents, and champions of freedom seemed to spring from the ground like the harvest from the seed-sowing of dragons' teeth. Enterprising men and women swarmed out of New England to people the virgin soil of Kansas with the hardy children of toil. They were joined by those of other free-labor States in the North and West. The then dominant party in the Union were astonished at the sudden uprising, and clearly perceived that the opponents of slavery would speedily outvote its supporters. Combinations were formed under various names, such as "Blue Lodges," "Friends' Society," "Social Band," "Sons of the South," etc., to counteract the efforts of the "Emigrant Aid Society," of Massachusetts, to gain numerical supremacy in Kansas—a society which had been organized immediately after the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska bill. The supporters of slavery, conscious that their votes could not secure supremacy in Kansas, where the question of slavery or no slavery was to be decided at the ballot-box, organized physical force in Missouri to oppose this moral force. Associations were formed in Missouri, whose members were pledged to be ready, at all times, to assist, when

called upon by the friends of slavery in Kansas, in removing from that Territory, by force, every person who should attempt to settle there "under the auspices of the Northern Emigrant Aid Society."

In the autumn of 1854, A. H. Reeder was sent to govern the Territory of Kansas. He immediately ordered an election of a Territorial legislature, and with that election the struggle for supremacy there was finally begun. Missourians went into Kansas to assist the supporters of slavery there to carry the election. They went with tents, artillery and other weapons. There were then eight hundred and thirty-one legal voters in the Territory, but there were more than six thousand votes polled. The members of the Legislature were all supporters of slavery; and when they met at Shawnee, on the borders of Missouri, they proceeded to enact laws for upholding slavery in Kansas. These laws were regularly vetoed by Governor Reeder, who became so obnoxious that president Pierce was asked to recall him. The President did so, and sent Wilson Shannon, of Ohio, who was an avowed supporter of slavery, to fill Reeder's place.

The actual settlers in Kansas, who were chiefly from the free-labor States, met in mass convention in September, 1855, and resolved not to recognize the laws passed by the illegally elected legislature, as binding upon them. They called a delegate convention to assemble at Topeka on the 19th of October, at which time and place the convention framed a State constitution which was approved by the legal voters of the Territory, and which contained an article making provision for constituting Kansas a free-labor State. Under this constitution they asked Congress to admit that Territory into the Union as a State. By this action the contest between Freedom and Slavery was transferred from Kansas to Washington, for awhile. The prospect of success for the opponents of slavery, in Kansas, was beginning to appear bright, when President Pierce gave the

supporters of the institution much comfort by a message to Congress in January, 1856, in which he declared the action of the legal voters, in adopting a State constitution, to be open rebellion.

Throughout the spring and summer of 1856, armed men from other States roamed over Kansas, committing many excesses under pretext of compelling obedience to the laws of the illegal legislature. There was much violence and bloodshed; but during the autumn, the Presidential election absorbed so much of the public attention, that Kansas was allowed a season of rest. At that election there were three parties in the field, each of which had a candidate for the Presidency. One was a party composed of men of all political creeds, who were opposed to slavery. It was called the Republican party, and it assumed powerful proportions at the outset. Another powerful political organization was known as the American or Know-Nothing party, whose chief bond of union was opposition to foreign influence and Roman Catholicism. The Democratic party, dating its organization at the period of the election of President Jackson, in 1828, was then the dominant party in the Union. The Democratic candidate for the Presidency was James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania; of the Republican party, John C. Fremont, of California, and of the American party, Ex-President Fillmore. After an exciting canvass, James Buchanan was elected President, with John C. Breckenridge, of Kentucky, as Vice-President.

ADMINISTRATIONS OF BUCHANAN, LINCOLN AND JOHNSON.

Buchanan had long been in public life, was a man of upright character and conservative views. He commanded the support of many people, personally opposed to slavery extension, who believed that his experience and wisdom were needed at this time to prevent sectional animosity from spreading. The short session of Con-

gress was partly occupied with Kansas matters, but nothing was done. A new tariff bill was passed, which raised some rates and lowered others.

In spite of the fact that Buchanan was a Northern man, and of conservative views, his election did not satisfy either the slavery or the anti-slavery element. The friends of slavery extension felt that their victory was a barren one, as Buchanan was, in a large minority, on the popular vote. Minnesota had been admitted as a free State and Oregon was soon to follow, but there were no slave territories to offset these. It was a firm conviction of the pro-slavery men that there must be an equal number of free and slave States.

That slavery must sooner or later have been eradicated is certain, but that it required a Civil War to do it is disputed by many. Certain it is that slavery leaders, no matter how intense their feelings or how honest their convictions, were unfortunate in leadership. These leaders constantly forced issues, which made matters worse for their own contention. From the day the Compromises of 1850 were signed there was a continuous series of false moves. This may by some be accounted for by the fact that their whole basis was wrong. The slave propagandists thought the North wanted to free all the slaves. Up to 1864 such an issue would probably not have carried a single State.

Almost coincident with Buchanan's inauguration came the famous Dred Scott decision. It is impossible in this day to appreciate the excitement which this caused. Buchanan had referred incidentally, in his inaugural address, to the fact that the decision was coming, which led many wrongfully to suppose he was aware of its nature. Dred Scott and family were slaves of an army officer in the South, who was detailed to posts in Illinois and Minnesota, which were free-soil under their constitutions. Coming back to Missouri, Dred Scott claimed to be a free man, as he had been living on free soil. This involved a great principle,

and there were found men ready to sustain Scott and pay the expense of a long law suit. Finally, on an appeal from the District Court, this reached the Supreme Court of the United States on a technicality, which was called upon to decide simply the question whether Dred Scott was an American citizen and entitled to appear in a Federal court at all. This question was settled in the negative. If it had done no more the decision would have attracted little attention. But the court did a great deal more. It undertook to discuss the whole slavery question and settle its status forever. At that time the Supreme Court stood higher in public respect than it ever has since. Chief Justice Taney was a man of high legal attainments and unquestioned integrity. It is reported that he was anxious to do his country a service by settling questions concerning which the Legislature and administrative branches of Government had failed. It is also said that he was stimulated to do this by the fact that one of his colleagues was to write a dissenting opinion. At any rate, the Dred Scott decision, outside of the single point at issue, was really a political document. It contained these three principal contentions:

1. The Missouri Compromise was unconstitutional, as slavery is by the Constitution a National institution not to be limited in Federal territory.

2. Once a slave always a slave, unless freed by the master.

3. The inferiority of the negro race was such that popularity so far back as 1788, the negro had "no rights which the white man was bound to respect."

This was a bitter pill for the anti-slavery people to swallow. The dissenting opinion of Justice McLean pointed out that these contentions were not true in fact or in law. This decision became a powerful issue in politics. As for Scott and his family, they eventually gained freedom.

Buchanan's Cabinet was as follows: Lewis Cass, of Michigan, Secretary of State; Howell Cobb, of Georgia, Secretary of the Treasury; John B. Floyd, of Virginia, Secretary of War; Isaac

Toucey, of Connecticut, Secretary of the Navy; Jacob Thompson, of Mississippi, Secretary of the Interior; Aaron V. Brown, of Tennessee, Postmaster-General; Jeremiah S. Black, of Pennsylvania, Attorney-General.

This was one of the weakest Cabinets on record. Cass was in his dotage and Black was the only strong man of the lot. An important appointment was that of Robert J. Walker, to be Governor of Kansas. Walker had been Polk's Secretary of the Treasury, and his selection for Kansas showed how serious was the issue. He guaranteed a fair election for the Legislature, and the Free State men won, as the "Border Ruffians" were kept out. In the meantime, a pro-slavery constitutional convention had met at Le-compton and drew up a remarkable constitution, providing for slavery and a good many other things obnoxious to the Free State men. The administration was committed to permit the people to vote on the constitution, but the convention avoided this by a trick. Knowing that it could not be adopted as a whole, it only allowed the people to vote on whether they would accept the Constitution "with slavery" or "without slavery," no opportunity being given to vote against it as a whole. The Free State men refused to vote at all and the Constitution was adopted "with slavery."

The fall of 1857 is ever memorable for the financial crisis that took place. This was the result of a bad currency system, wild speculation and over construction of railways. At this time each State regulated its banking system, and in some the laws were imperfect or improperly executed. The notes of most of these banks declined in value as they got away from the place of issue. In general, Eastern banks were sounder than those in the West and South, but there were poor ones in the East. This caused great inconvenience in business, for merchants were often paid in inferior currency, while travelers had great difficulty in getting the various bills accepted. Every merchant had a counterfeit detector and a table show-

ing the value of the notes of most of the banks, and business was conducted accordingly. The impetus caused by the discovery of gold in California stimulated trade and also speculation. Unfortunately, most of the gold went to Europe. There was a craze for building railways. Some were built extravagantly; some were built which manifestly could not pay expenses; but railroads were considered a sort of Aladdin's lamp, that would bring immediate prosperity to every community that was on the route. This stimulated speculation in land and prices rose rapidly, but the lands and town lots were usually covered with mortgages. The crisis came in the fall of 1857, and the bricks fell fast. Hundreds of banks went to the wall, merchants failed, railroads went into bankruptcy, and the ruin of the country seemed complete. It was a hard winter for the poorer classes, as many were thrown out of employment, but the enormous resources of the country soon improved conditions, so that the recovery was far more rapid than seemed possible at first, and much more rapidly than in years before.

The whole of Buchanan's administration was taken up with the struggle over slavery. The President was determined that Kansas should be admitted as a slave State under the Lecompton constitution. The Senate passed the bill, though Douglas vigorously opposed it, because the people of Kansas had not had a chance to vote on the Constitution as a whole. The House rejected this bill and passed one of its own. Finally as a compromise, a bill known as Lecompton, Jr., was passed, allowing Kansas to come in under the Lecompton constitution if the voters so decided, and offering the State large grants of land. But the Kansas people refused the terms by a large majority. Eventually a new Constitution was adopted at Wyandotte, but the State was not admitted until just before the Civil War.

Southern men were anxious to secure Cuba, Nicaragua, and all or a part of Mexico, so that the balance be-

tween free and slave States could be kept up. There was also a desire to reopen the slave trade on the ground that the natural increase in this country was not sufficient. The main theoretical question was whether slavery was a National or local institution. According to the Dred Scott decision it was National, but many refused to abide by that decision. All efforts at getting territory failed. Walker was killed in Nicaragua after he had set up a Government, Spain would not listen to any offer for Cuba, while an effort to take advantage of the revolutionary state of affairs in Mexico failed, because the Senate, in 1860, would not ratify the treaty. There was no legislation possible on the slavery question, as the Senate and House were opposed to each other on the subject.

One event caused much excitement for a time. Fillmore had commissioned Brigham Young as Governor of Utah, and Buchanan appointed a new man from the East. Young refused to give up office and threatened resistance. Force was actually used, but General Johnston was sent with an army, which made resistance impossible, and a compromise was effected by which the new Governor was recognized, and the army withdrew from Salt Lake City. There existed great prejudice in the East against the Mormons both on account of polygamy and the alleged outrages committed by some of them on emigrants. At Mountain Meadow a large number of emigrants to California were foully murdered, and it was years before the offenders were brought to justice.

The elections in 1858 showed that political sectionalism was rising and driving North and South sharply. There were Democratic gains in the South and Republican gains in the North. The Native Americans, who called themselves "Southern Americans," formed the remnant of the Whig party in the South, but they were losing ground.

An interesting contest this year, because of its personnel, was that between Senator Douglas and Abraham

Lincoln for the Senatorship in Illinois. According to the custom in this State, party conventions named candidates for the Senate, to which the Legislators of each party adhered. Douglas had the advantage of occupying the seat and was backed by powerful influences. Moreover, his stand on the Lecompton constitution question had made him many friends among anti-slavery people. He had a further advantage in the fact that the holding-over State Senators were largely of his own faith. Abraham Lincoln was practicing law and had become a leader at the bar. He was ambitious for Senatorship, which he wanted in 1854, when Trumbull was elected. By arrangement a series of joint debates was held, at which questions at issue were discussed. Douglas was the better stump speaker. He could appeal to an audience with great tact and keep them in good humor. Much of his speeches were devoted to ridicule, while he attempted to brush the slavery issue aside, saying he did not care whether slavery was voted up or down in a territory so long as the people had a chance to vote on it. Lincoln, on the other hand, was always serious, often melancholy, and discussed the whole slavery issue in detail, claiming that slavery was wrong and must not be extended, and that Douglas ought to care whether it was voted up or down. It was agreed that each of the candidates should prepare questions which his opponent must publicly answer. Lincoln answered those put to him frankly. He was not in favor of sumptuary legislation against slavery, but he was opposed to its extension. In return he asked Douglas a question, the answer to which was the turning point in the latter's career. Douglas had posed as the champion of popular sovereignty, holding that slavery was a local and not a National issue. Lincoln asked Douglas a question which was to put him on record as to whether or not he agreed with the Dred Scott decision, that slavery was a National institution, and by right existed in all the National territory, and must be upheld in spite of local views, though

this was not its exact form. This put Douglas in a corner. He could not say "yes," for his record was on the other side. If he said "no" it would injure his political future. Therefore he made the ingenious reply that the theory was not worth discussing because as a matter of fact slavery could only be maintained by police regulations, and if the local Legislature in any territory was opposed to slavery it could by "unfriendly legislation" prevent its introduction. This is what is known as the "Freeport Doctrine," from the name of the town in which he announced it. The answer pleased the audience and no doubt contributed materially to Douglas' success, for he was reelected. The Republicans carried the State on the popular vote, but, owing to the way the districts were formed, lost even the lower House of the Legislature. The fall elections showed that the administration was not being supported, even Pennsylvania going Republican.

During 1859 the people were busy recovering from the effects of the panic, while the politicians were discussing not only slavery and the Presidency, but the state of the Union. The admission of Oregon as a State had still further disturbed the equilibrium between free and slave States. New Mexico, it was evident, had not population enough for a State, and there was nothing there for slaves to do with profit, so that about twenty personal servants constituted the whole slave population. Kansas was determined not to have slavery, and no foreign territory was available. Indeed but a handful of slaves were ever held there in spite of the efforts of the pro-slavery men.

It is easy to imagine that when every one in the country was more or less wrought up over the slavery issue, the John Brown raid made a sensation almost unparalleled. John Brown was a crack-brained, albeit shrewd, man, who felt himself called to be the instrument that was to destroy slavery. He went to Kansas, and with some followers foully murdered inoffensive pro-slavery men

in the Pottawatomie Valley. Escaping, he went East and tried, with some success, to interest anti-slavery people in a scheme to raise a revolt among the slaves, and by arms destroy the institution he hated. There never was a wilder scheme proposed by man, but Brown proceeded to carry it out. On the night of October 16, 1859, with some twenty-two men, he descended from the Pennsylvania hills upon Harper's Ferry, captured the town, took some of the leading men prisoners, and raised the standard of revolt among the slaves. By daylight the town was aroused and help sent for, and Brown retreated to the Baltimore and Ohio roundhouse, where, on the night of the 17th, with his little band, he fought desperately for hours, finally to be overpowered by Colonel Robert E. Lee with a detachment of marines, after losing two sons and several others of his followers, besides being wounded himself. Brown's movement failed completely as a military enterprise. The slaves would not rise and never intended to do so. If the negroes had been of that nature they would never have been kept in slavery. The feeble attempt of a man who, while not crazy, was little less, alarmed the South. It was feared that Brown had many accomplices, and that the Harper's Ferry raid was but an incident in a vast conspiracy that was to upset slavery and destroy the South. These fears were not unnatural, but they were groundless. Brown's only confidants were a few men who had listened to him, almost none of whom approved his plans, but who were now greatly alarmed for fear of being accused of complicity. Gerrit Smith, the famous anti-slavery man, a friend of Brown, temporarily lost his reason from alarm.

Brown was tried and convicted of treason. He met his death calmly, as a philosopher. During his confinement in jail he seemed to regain his mental balance. He openly avowed his deed and spoke of it in such a way that Senator Mason, of Virginia, was moved at his sincerity.

This raid became injected into poli-

tics, and made matters worse. There were conservative men everywhere who were praying for national harmony and party union, but as the months passed away there were found to be irreconcilable difficulties. The Democratic party, which had so long been in power, was split in twain over the question as to whether slavery was a national or local institution. It is worthy of note that the division on this question was almost entirely sectional, indicating the honesty of convictions on both sides, which were dominated largely by local surroundings. It would be unjust to suppose that men in either section were not equally as honest in their convictions as to slavery as they were years later on the silver question. Among those who were foremost in the cause of abolition, aside from those already mentioned were Whittier, the poet; Emerson, the philosopher, and Beecher, the orator and clergyman.

When Congress met in December, 1859, another long contest for the Speakership took place. There were 109 Republicans, 101 Democrats, and 27 Americans, principally former Whigs from the South. John Sherman was the Republican candidate, and failed of election because he had indorsed, though without reading, a book entitled "The Impending Crisis," by Hinton Rowan Helper, a Southern man, who attacked slavery not only on moral, but economic grounds, holding that the South would never prosper so long as slavery existed. Some of his language was abusive, and the book was detested in the South more than "Uncle Tom's Cabin," because it was by a Southerner, and because it could not be answered. Pennington, of New Jersey, was finally chosen. He was a conservative Republican. The contest lasted until January 30, and was full of rancor. Many members went armed, and personal combats were often imminent.

The Democratic Convention met in Charleston in April, 1860. It was composed of leading men of the party, and there was the most sincere desire to effect a compromise which would save the party and prevent any steps of dis-

union. The most radical men from the South were as anxious as the men from New England to reconcile differences, but it was impossible. The two-thirds rule made it necessary for the winning candidate to get many votes from both sections, but the sections were nearly solidly opposed to each other on the issue. The Committee on Resolutions reported a platform embodying the views of the radical Southern men, but the Convention, instead, adopted a minority report, which was drawn in the Douglas interest, which referred all questions of protecting slavery, to the Supreme Court. This split the party. Southern men who had known and loved Douglas could not accept his views nor follow his leadership. That one expression, "unfriendly legislation," at Freeport, had alienated from him the support of most Southern men. A large portion of the Southern delegates to the Convention withdrew, not without a feeling of sadness, and, in cases of great emotion. The Convention proceeded to ballot, and, while Douglas had a majority of the votes, he could not command the necessary two-thirds. The Convention finally adjourned to meet at Baltimore in June, where, after more withdrawals, Douglas was finally nominated, with Herschel V. Johnson, of Georgia, for Vice-President.

The Democrats who left the two conventions nominated John C. Breckenridge, of Kentucky, with Joseph Lane, of Oregon, for second place. The platform was substantially that rejected at Charleston. Slavery was declared a National institution.

Some conservative men of the country, who feared the Union was endangered, formed the Constitutional Union party, whose only platform was the preservation of the Union and execution of the laws, and nominated John Bell, of Tennessee, for President, and Edward Everett, of Massachusetts, for Vice-President. This party drew its principal strength from the border slave States, where slavery was practiced and defended, but not considered as the vital issue in politics.

The large vote for Bell in the border States was a strong factor in keeping all but Eastern Virginia from joining the Confederacy.

The Republican party, at Chicago, May 16-18, 1860, nominated Abraham Lincoln and Hannibal Hamlin on a platform declaring against slavery extension. Lincoln's nomination was a surprise, as Seward had been considered the most likely candidate. But Lincoln had many personal friends in politics, and his debates with Douglas had a profound effect on the country. The nomination at first was not warmly received in the East, but Seward threw himself into the breach, and harmony, with enthusiasm, was restored. The early State elections foreshadowed Lincoln's election, which was confirmed in November. The electoral vote stood: Lincoln, 180; Breckenridge, 72; Bell, 39; Douglas, 12. The popular vote was: Lincoln, 1,866,352; Breckenridge, 845,763; Bell, 589,581; Douglas, 1,375,157. Total, 4,676,853.

Thus Lincoln was in a large minority on the popular vote, but, on the other hand, Breckenridge, the candidate of the radical Southern wing, was a very bad third in the race, with Bell a much better fourth. The people who declared that equilibrium of slave and free States was essential to the perpetuity of the Republic, turned out to be only one-sixth of the whole, while exactly one-third of the States gave Lincoln their electoral vote. Congress was, however, divided again, the Senate still being Democratic, and no radical legislation was possible so long as this condition existed.

No sooner was the result known than South Carolina decided on secession, and a convention passed an ordinance (December 20, 1860) repealing the act, by which the Federal Constitution had been ratified, declared its independence to each other on the slavery question, and sent commissioners to Washington to negotiate a convention as to public property and the like, and asked seven other States to join in the movement, while preparations were made for war.

When Congress met, the ardor of

the Republicans was cooled by the news that secession had been undertaken, and was likely to spread. Joy over the election of Lincoln was greatly tempered by anxiety as to the future, and the President's message was awaited with great eagerness, in the hope that he could either give some plan of adjustment or at least outline a policy that would save the Nation's territorial integrity. On the contrary, the message was the most disappointing that this country has ever received. It was a scolding message, practically rebuking the people for electing Lincoln, and, while theoretically declaring against the right of secession, declared also that there was no way to coerce a State that wanted to withdraw. This suited nobody, and there went up a cry from the North, "Oh! for one hour of Andrew Jackson." Is it not strange that the two most determined foes of secession were Jackson and Taylor, Southern men and slaveholders? Is it not strange that the acts of Northern men like Fillmore and Buchanan gave aid and comfort to pro-slavery men, though both were personally loyal to the Union? As the President offered no remedy, Congress started to see what it could do. Many speeches were made. There was a peculiar mixture of sober earnestness and anger on both sides. The members kept dropping out as their States passed ordinances of secession. But one final effort at compromise was made by the successor of Clay—John J. Crittenden, of Kentucky, one of the best of the old-school, Union-loving statesmen. A committee of thirteen, representing all factions in the Senate, was appointed to see if a remedy could be found. None was found, and the committee so reported, though Seward and Davis worked diligently for a compromise. Crittenden's plan was to have a Constitutional amendment passed, prohibiting Congress from ever abolishing slavery, restoring the Missouri Compromise line, with an eye to future accessions of territory, payment for escaped slaves not returned, and the like. It was too late—the day of compro-

mise had passed. Patriotic men called a Peace Convention at Washington. Delegates appeared from most of the States, and ex-President Tyler presided. It could do no more than Crittenden did. The movement was a failure, and war was certain. In January, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, and Louisiana passed ordinances of secession, while Texas made arrangements to do so in March. All prepared for war. Members of Congress from these States generally retired as the ordinances were passed, and soon the Republicans and Douglas Democrats were in a large majority. Kansas was admitted, and legislation looking toward war was passed, including the Morrill Tariff Bill. An amendment to the Constitution was passed by this Congress, providing that Congress should never abolish slavery, but, the war coming on, it was not acted on by enough States to decide its fate.

Meanwhile, the Cabinet had been reorganized. Cass could not stand Buchanan's logic, and resigned. Cobb, who had been an unsuccessful administrator of the public funds, had already gone, leaving an empty treasury. The next to go was Floyd, who was \$870,000 short in his accounts, due to improper favoritism to contractors, though he resigned in feigned high dudgeon because Sumter was to be reinforced without notice to South Carolina. Black became Secretary of State; Joseph Holt, of Kentucky, Secretary of War; Edwin M. Stanton, of Pennsylvania, Attorney-General; while Philip F. Thomas, of Maryland, became Secretary of the Treasury. After this reorganization, Buchanan was better advised, and acted with more firmness. Buchanan had given the South Carolina Commissioners a purely unofficial reception. They demanded the evacuation of all the forts held by the Federal army. While they were in Washington news came that Major Anderson, in command of the Charleston harbor, had grown uneasy over the military operations of the South Carolina army, removed his men to Fort

Sumter, on an island in the harbor, commanding the entire city. In anger the Commissioners at Washington demanded that Anderson be ordered back to Fort Moultrie, but the President refused, and the Commissioners, becoming excitable, and using undignified language, were dismissed. Anderson was in sore straits, and it was soon a question of whether he should be reinforced or ordered away. In January, an expedition was sent with men, munitions and provisions, on "The Star of the West," but Secretary Thompson had given the South Carolina authorities notice, and the vessel was fired on and prevented from reaching Fort Sumter. Finally a truce was patched up for a time, and Sumter was not molested, while Anderson bought provisions in the open market. Secretary Thomas, not proving a success, was succeeded at the Treasury by John A. Dix, of New York, a determined foe of secession, who gained undying fame by his letter to a subordinate, in which he said: "If any man attempts to haul down the American flag, shoot him on the spot." This was the first strong note the North had heard, and it was joyfully received.

Many people in the South believed that secession would be peacefully accomplished. Many more believed that there would be a brief and glorious war. Jefferson Davis was not one of these. He anticipated a long and bloody war. He retired from the Senate in January, after a most affecting farewell speech, for personally he was very popular. He went to his home, expecting to take up arms in favor of his dogma. A convention representing the six States that claimed to have seceded met at Montgomery, Alabama, drew up a temporary Constitution and elected Davis President, and Stephens, of Georgia, Vice-President. Stephens was one of the last to give in to secession. He argued that it was not yet time for such a step, but he went with his State. Davis at once accepted. The Constitution was largely a copy of the Federal Constitution, except upon the questions of slavery

and State Rights. Later a more perfect Constitution was adopted, and Richmond, Virginia, was made the capital. The States of North Carolina, Arkansas, Texas, Tennessee and Virginia finally joined the Confederacy, the Old Dominion being the last to take action, after long hesitation.

Jefferson Davis' first Cabinet was as follows: Robert M. T. Hunter, of Virginia, Secretary of State; Charles Y. Memminger, of South Carolina, Secretary of the Treasury; Judah P. Benjamin, of Louisiana, Secretary of War; Stephen R. Mallory, of Florida, Secretary of the Navy; John H. Reagan, of Texas, Postmaster-General; Thomas H. Watts, of Alabama, Attorney-General. Benjamin soon succeeded Hunter, and his place as Secretary of War was filled by James A. Seddon, of Virginia. The Confederate Congress soon became an unimportant body, because exigencies of the war made legislation sometimes impossible, and often Mr. Davis was obliged to act almost as a dictator. Most of the leading men went into the army instead of Congress, which had far less power than that of the United States, owing to so many rights being reserved to the States.

Practically nothing was done at Washington to meet this coming storm. General Scott got a few troops into the capital, but the army was being rapidly demoralized by the resignations of Southern officers, and often by companies and regiments following them into the Confederacy. When Lincoln was inaugurated, the only Southern forts held by the Government were Fort Sumter, at Charleston, and Fort Pickens, at Pensacola. It was a trying time in the North. Many still hoped for a compromise. Many believed that it was best to let "the erring sisters go in peace," as Horace Greeley expressed it. Even in the seceding States opinion was far from unanimous; the border States for a time were as one for the Union, and only Virginia, in part, went over to the Confederacy, after long hesitation. In some States the vote was close, and Stephens claimed that

Georgia was really opposed to secession. Many leaders claimed that their States only went out in order to get back into the Union on better terms, but war soon put this notion to sleep.

Abraham Lincoln remained quietly at home in Springfield during all the exciting times, doing all he could to allay Southern excitement. He wrote to Stephens to try and convince him that the South had nothing to fear from him so long as it obeyed the laws. It was too late. In consequence much time was taken up in preparing his Cabinet with a view to anticipated emergencies. Seward was early offered the position of Secretary of State, which he accepted. The rest of the Cabinet was composed of men little known in National politics, with the exception of Salmon P. Chase, of Ohio, who took the Treasury. It was a coalition Cabinet, about equally divided between Republicans and former Democrats, and included several of the President's rivals for the nomination. Indiana was given the Interior portfolio in the person of Caleb Smith, which smacked of a convention deal. Edward Bates became Attorney-General; Montgomery Blair, Postmaster-General; Gideon Welles, Secretary of the Navy, and Simon Cameron, Secretary of War. At the last minute the slate was nearly smashed. Lincoln, having been asked to change the last name on it, remarked that if broken at all it would be broken at the top. Seward learned of this, and wrote, declining to serve, but Lincoln held him to his promise. Many thought that Seward would be the whole administration, and Lincoln had learned enough to make him hesitate a moment. This Cabinet was not settled until the last minute. In the meantime Lincoln had made an extended tour, from Springfield to Washington, speaking in many cities. Some things he said failed to meet popular favor. It seemed as if he were jesting in the face of an awful crisis, and some of his speeches seemed to indicate that there was no crisis at all. No man read the signs of the times more correctly than Lincoln. What he meant was that there

was no reason for a crisis; that insofar as it existed or should grow, it was on a false basis, and that the perpetuity of the Union was not in the least affected by the election of a Republican President, insofar as the party intended the invasion of the rights of any persons, party or section. Reports gaining currency that there would be an attempt to assassinate him, his tour was cut short, and he reached Washington unannounced and unexpected. Inauguration day passed off without incident. The President spoke earnestly in favor of the Union, and denied that secession was possible, or that any cause for it existed, closing with a glowing appeal for the Union.

Commissioners purporting to represent the Confederacy now appeared to take up again the Fort Sumter issue. Secretary Seward saw them unofficially, and once informed them that he believed the fort would soon be evacuated. Indeed, the Cabinet had practically agreed to this, when the President changed his mind. Justice of the Supreme Court Campbell, who was about to resign, but waited around to get news, acted as an intermediary, and a dispute arose between him and Seward when the fort was not evacuated. Campbell claimed that Seward made a promise, but the latter said he only expressed an opinion based on the Cabinet decision, which was afterward changed.

The President's greatest anxiety was to save the border States of Missouri, Kentucky, Virginia, Maryland and Delaware. In this he succeeded after great difficulties and many discouragements, except that Virginia, after once declaring overwhelmingly for the Union, reversed the decision. Only a portion of the State accepted the verdict, and West Virginia was born, and admitted to the Union in 1863. It was at one time believed that North Carolina and Tennessee would refuse to secede, but they finally joined the others, so that eleven States were admitted to the Confederacy. In theory Missouri and Kentucky also belonged, and their representatives sat in the Congress at

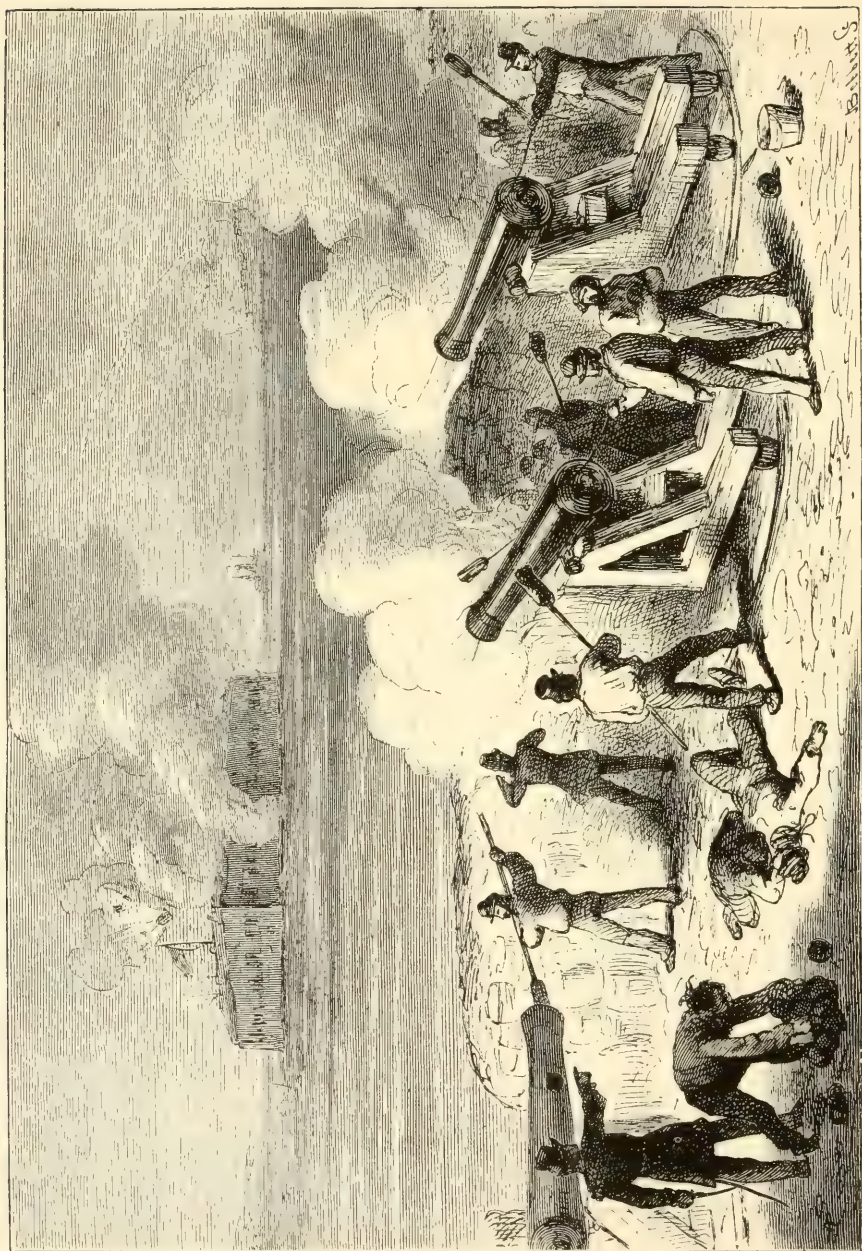
Richmond, but this was a mere farce. The chaotic condition of the army and navy, due to resignation, desertions and surrenders, made important military preparations impossible, yet General Scott did his best. In order that Virginia might not feel offended, no troops were placed on her soil until after she had joined the Confederacy, and thus strategic points were lost. The little navy was at that time scattered all over the world, with only about half a dozen vessels near at hand available for use.

As the days passed on, and Anderson did not evacuate Fort Sumter, the South Carolina forces became angry, charged bad faith, and, on April 12, 1861, opened fire on the fort, just as the relieving ships appeared off the bar. Anderson responded, and for two days a hot fire was kept up, during which no one was hurt on either side. Fort Sumter, being only partially completed, suffered severely, the barracks were burned, and salt pork alone left for rations. Under these circumstances Major Anderson surrendered on the 14th, hauled down his flag, and by agreement went North with his command. The effect of this was electrical. It solidified the sections. The North became unanimous, the South likewise, while the border States strove to maintain neutrality, but were really divided in sentiment. Lincoln at once issued a call for 75,000 volunteers, to serve three months. The first troops to respond were five independent companies from Central Pennsylvania, who rushed to the Capital, and were received by the President with joy. They were placed in the Capitol, for there were many rumors of sudden attack. Next came the Sixth Massachusetts, which was assaulted by a mob in Baltimore. There were four soldiers killed and thirty wounded, while the mob suffered much more heavily. The excitement was intense. The railway bridges near Baltimore were burned, so that for a time there was no direct communication between Washington and the North. General Butler, with Massachusetts troops, sailed to Annapolis, and, in spite of the Governor's protest, landed

and marched to the railway between Baltimore and Washington; then, in the night, he captured Baltimore, and the railway was reopened to the North.

The military history of the Civil War has filled many volumes, and the outlines only can be given here. Kentucky having declared neutrality, no troops for a time were sent to that State, but immediate steps were taken in Missouri, where an army was raised and Federal authority maintained, after the Governor had declared for the Confederacy. General Frémont was in command, but he issued an order emancipating the slaves of those who had taken the side of the Confederacy, and in consequence was soon relieved. In the center considerable bodies of troops were located in Western Virginia under General George B. McClellan, where the first conflicts of the war took place, and near Harper's Ferry, under General Patterson. The Army of the Potomac was organized at Washington under the command of General McDowell.

It took only a few days to enlist the 75,000 men, but it took time to equip them, and few of them saw any active service until they re-enlisted under the next call for 300,000 men for three years. To tell the story of the difficulties in getting guns and powder, tents and clothing, and rations, the difficulties in organizing and drilling regiments, would be simply to repeat what has happened in every one of our wars. The South was little better off, except that it began earlier to make preparations, but in equipment it was worse off than the North. The smooth-bore musket of the Mexican War period was the principal arm, and many of these were converted flint-locks. Floyd made a great virtue of what he had done for the South in selling condemned arms and the like, but it appears he was more anxious to get a good job under the Confederacy than to tell the exact truth. The guns he sold to the South were of little use, and Floyd's boasts were principally bombast, though they were at one time generally believed. He had been a professed Union man almost



THE ATTACK ON FORT SUMTER

to the last, and never rose to importance under the Confederacy.

The contest over West Virginia was brief and decisive. Compared with other battles they appear insignificant, but at the time they were thought important. McClellan and Rosecrans, by a series of brilliant maneuvers and sharp attacks, defeated the Confederates at Rich Mountain and Carrick's Ford, took many prisoners, and later on drove them from the State. This made McClellan a hero, and brought him into prominence. In the West, General Lyon, by active work, kept Missouri in the Union and drove the Confederates toward the Southern border. In the center General Patterson lay with a large army, confronting the Confederates, under General Joseph Johnston. Patterson was to prevent Johnston from joining Beauregard at Manassas, about twenty miles from Washington, where lay the principal part of the Confederate army, under General Beauregard. In the meantime, all was excitement at Washington. There was a ceaseless cry of "On to Richmond," and the pressure from the politicians; the press and the public to begin offensive operations was so strong that the Administration gave in against the opinion of the army officers, who feared the raw troops would not stand fire. A forward movement was ordered on Manassas, and Patterson was finally informed that the attack would be made on the 18th, and to look out for Johnston. The attack was delayed until the 21st, and the battle took place along a stream called Bull Run. General Sherman says it was the best planned and worst fought battle of the war. The earlier part of the battle was favorable to the Federals, but the Confederate General, Thomas J. Jackson, made a stout defense, that gained him the name of "Stonewall." Johnston eluded Patterson, and reached the field in time to turn the tide. The Federal troops were repulsed, but it was not a serious defeat, as the reserves could have been brought up and the attack renewed. Instead, a senseless panic followed, and the whole Federal army fled

in terror to Washington, leaving its impediments along the route. The Confederates had suffered heavily, and not until they heard of the flight of the Federals did they understand the extent of their victory. However, they made no attack on Washington.

McClellan was now placed in command of all the armies of the United States and in direct command of the Army of the Potomac, and he set about organizing an efficient army, but it did not have a battle of importance for nine months. During this interval McClellan was actively engaged in drilling and disciplining, seeking to make soldiers of the untrained recruits.

During the rest of this year the Confederates were driven out of West Virginia and pushed further South in Missouri, though the gallant General Lyon fell at the battle of Wilson's Creek. Frémont was succeeded, in general command of the West by General Halleck. In command under him, at Cairo, was General U. S. Grant, who had early in the war been appointed Colonel of an Illinois regiment, and by rapid promotion was now a Brigadier-General. He took possession of Paducah, Kentucky, attacked a Confederate camp at Belmont, Missouri, and captured it, but, being attacked in turn, recrossed the river to Cairo, as the movement was only a diversion to keep reinforcements being sent to the interior to aid General Price, who commanded the Confederates in Missouri. In Virginia the Federals were sharply repulsed in a small engagement at Ball's Bluff. Colonel Baker, a Senator from Oregon, the intimate friend of Lincoln, was killed.

The whole year may be said to have been one of preparation on both sides. Neither side was equipped for war, as the battle of Bull Run showed. After this the cry of "On to Richmond!" died out, and both parties prepared for the struggle. The contest was more equal than would seem at first sight. While the eleven States of the Confederacy had a less population than those which remained in the Union, Missouri, Kentucky, and Maryland

were practically divided in furnishing troops, so far as individuals were concerned. The North also had the disadvantage of having to invade the South and maintain its line of transportation, which took many men. The North, however, was rich in factories and shops that could turn out muskets and cannon, while in a short time rifles were made in large quantities. The North had resources in men and money far beyond the South, but the cotton industry furnished the latter with an asset which would have offset these advantages if it could have been realized on. In April, 1861, President Lincoln declared a blockade of the whole Confederate coast. This was at first a "paper" blockade, as we had few vessels for such a task. New ones were undertaken, and many merchant vessels were bought and fitted up as well as possible. The first sea capture of the war was a remodeled Hudson River ferry boat. The Confederate privateers did some damage early in the war, but later they retired from active service.

Congress met in special session July 4, 1861, and for a short time was supine. After Bull Run, the seriousness of the situation was discovered, and large supplies of men were granted. For a time specie payments were maintained, but before long this was impossible, and the war was fought with paper money, as will be described elsewhere. The Confederacy was in a hopeful mood at this time. Cotton was believed to hold the key to the situation. It was believed that neither France nor England would consent to have such articles of necessity cut off, and more active help was looked for. Commissioners were sent to London and Paris, with no result, and a more formidable mission was later sent, which will be treated upon fully in another place. One of Mr. Davis' Southern critics complains that his Cabinet was composed of figureheads, and that he wanted to control everything. He is blamed for not seizing all the cotton in the South, fixing a certain price for it, and then rushing it abroad before the blockade was established. A fleet

of iron merchantmen was offered the Confederacy by a foreign firm on easy terms, but was not accepted until it was too late to make the transfer. The Confederacy issued bonds, which for a time sold at a good figure, but finally recourse was had to paper money, which depreciated constantly as the war went on. It is impossible here to give the details of Confederate legislation. As the war went on, Mr. Davis became practical dictator, and he, as also the Confederate Congress, was as roundly abused by many men in the South for acts of usurpation, as was the North before the war began. This is the case in all wars of this kind. States' Rights, on which the Confederacy was constructed, proved as bad a condition in this war as it had during the Revolution. If the Confederacy had succeeded it could not have been maintained on the original basis. Centralized control is essential to any large nation.

Before the blockade became effective supplies and munitions of war were rushed in. The blockade was never complete, for blockade runners from Nassau and the Bermudas got in and out during the war, bringing in guns and powder in exchange for cotton. The contraband trade was risky and often disastrous, but where one voyage paid the cost of a ship, the temptation was greater than the risk.

The grand strategy of the war developed slowly, and many mistakes were made on both sides. The Confederates' plan was to hold the Mississippi, stretch a chain of forts and camps from the Mississippi to the Alleghanies, along the south central section of Kentucky, while the Army of Virginia was to complete the chain to the Atlantic. The Federal plan was not so well conceived at first. The original idea was to save the border States. Then came the ill-advised method of advance on Richmond. Kentucky, claiming to be neutral, was left alone for a short time, for policy's sake, but she soon declared for the Union, and Grant was ordered to attack Fort Henry, on the Tennessee River, and break the chain

of forts that connected the great river and the mountain chain. A flotilla of gunboats, made out of river steamers, and others constructed on new plans, were put in command of Commodore Porter to co-operate with the army. The Confederates had a small flotilla at and below Memphis. The first break in the Confederate line was made by General Thomas, in January, 1862, who defeated and killed General Zollikoffer, at Mill Spring, Kentucky. The Confederates were obliged to retreat into Tennessee. General Grant then advanced on Fort Henry, Commodore Foote sailed up the river with his flotilla, and the garrison either surrendered or fled to Fort Donelson, a few miles away on the Cumberland River. This was in February, 1862, when the roads were bad and it was difficult to move supplies for the army. Fort Donelson was invested by the army and navy. There were three days of fighting, due to an attempt of the garrison to escape. It was the hardest fighting of the war, up to this time, and the men on both sides showed the results of discipline and training. The fort was now untenable. General Pillow turned the fort over to General Floyd, who in turn handed it over to Buckner, who asked for terms. This brought forth the now historic reply of Grant: "No terms except unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works." It is of interest to note that General Grant, then a captain who had just resigned, a few years previous, had landed penniless in New York, and General Buckner, then a subaltern and an old comrade, loaned him money to get to his family. Buckner was obliged to surrender, and the line of defenses from the river to the mountains was smashed. Grant moved his army up the Tennessee River to Pittsburgh Landing to await the arrival of General Don Carlos Buell, who was coming with an army from Central Kentucky. He did not expect an attack and made no adequate earth works for defense, so little was the art of war then appreciated. On April 6,

1862, General Albert S. Johnston, with a well-trained army, fell on the Federals at daybreak. It was at least a partial surprise, and the Federals were driven back some distance before a firm defense could be made. General Grant ordered up a division under General Lew Wallace, from down the river, but it arrived too late for active work that day. Many of the raw soldiers fled to the river bank, but the main body of the army contested the battle firmly, General Wm. T. Sheridan's division being especially effective. The Confederacy met with a serious loss, General Johnston being mortally wounded. That night Buell arrived, and Grant was enabled to take the offensive next day, the battle ending in the defeat of the Confederates. Though Grant's victory was complete, his losses were so great that there was an outcry against him, and from being the popular hero of Donelson he was unjustly maligned and even accused, though falsely, of drunkenness on the day of battle. General Halleck immediately arrived on the scene and took command. He seemed to have an antipathy for Grant, which made the latter's position very uncomfortable. There was no reason why the army should not have been in front of Corinth in a few days, but Halleck occupied a month in going thirty miles, only to find that the enemy had fled. Then he fortified Corinth as if it were the greatest strategic point in the South. Soon he was called East, and Grant was left in command, but by this time the Confederates had gotten two armies together, and the opportunity was lost to pierce "the hollow shell of the Confederacy." In the meantime General Pope and the navy, under Porter, had moved down the Mississippi, captured Island No. 10, Fort Pillow, and Memphis. The Confederate line had now been moved to the southern border of Tennessee, except in the eastern part of that State.

It is time to return to Eastern affairs. McClellan was in charge of all the armies, and spent many months in preparation, during which many thousands of his soldiers died of camp dis-

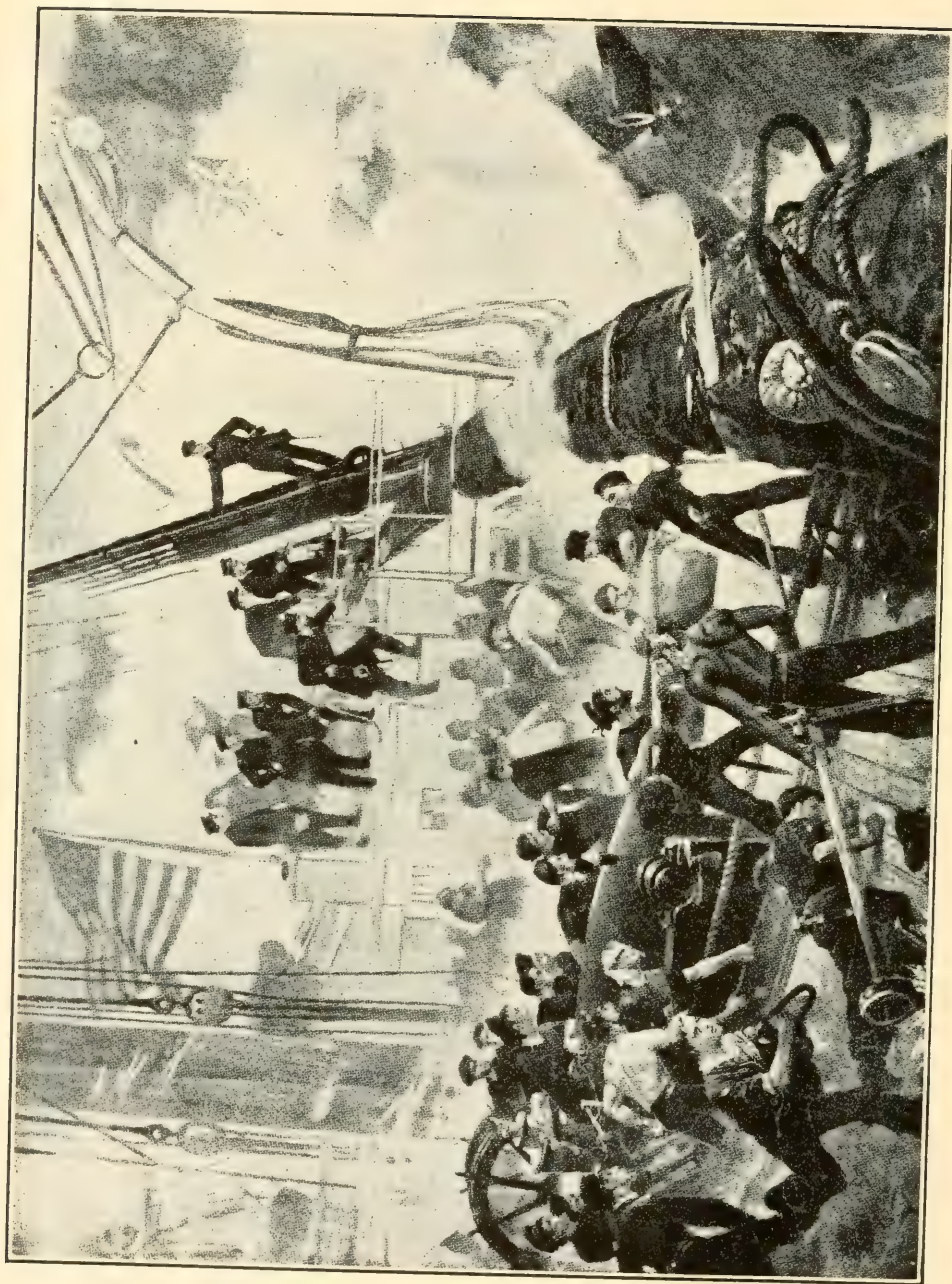
case. There were never frank relations between him and Lincoln. By his own admission, afterward made public, McClellan had a small opinion of Lincoln, and was restive under his orders. The distrust of Lincoln was for a time widespread. Even Seward, in the early part of his secretaryship, was ambitious to control the Administration and reduce Lincoln to a mere figurehead, but he soon found that he had a strong man to deal with. McClellan had an exaggerated idea of the strength of Johnston's army, and would not move on Manassas until late in the winter of 1861-62, even when ordered to do so by Lincoln. When he did move he found the place abandoned. He now proposed to take 100,000 men by sea to the Yorktown Peninsula, go up the York River and capture Richmond. The plan was agreed to, provided he left an army under McDowell between Washington and Richmond to protect the Capital. This army was to march overland to meet McClellan if its services were not needed to defend Washington.

The army landed near Yorktown, and met strong opposition. Instead of pushing on to Richmond, McClellan stopped to besiege Yorktown and Williamsburg, which gave the Confederates time to collect an army before Richmond, under General Joseph Johnston. When McClellan reached Richmond he met a fierce resistance. The stream Chickahominy, small in itself, but bordered by impassable swamps, flows eastward just north of Richmond. Expecting McDowell, McClellan put part of his army north of the Chickahominy, to connect with the expected Northern army. Here they were attacked by General Joseph Johnston and narrowly escaped a disastrous defeat in the battle of Fair Oaks, or Seven Pines. General Johnston was seriously wounded in this engagement, and General Robert E. Lee succeeded him in command of the army of Northern Virginia. The new commander prepared for vigorous action. Stonewall Jackson, one of the ablest Confederate leaders, had drawn the Fed-

erals from the Shenandoah Valley, and was now recalled to join Lee before Richmond. On June 26, 1862, a sudden attack was made on McClellan's army at Mechanicsville. A stubborn contest ensued, battle after battle being fought for seven days. It ended in the repulse of McClellan, who felt obliged to abandon the siege of Richmond and intrench himself at Harrison's Landing, on the James River. He had defeated Lee at Malvern Hill on July 1, but failed to take advantage of his victory. From his new headquarters he sent angry telegrams to Lincoln, claiming that his army had been victimized by the holding back of McDowell's forces.

McClellan's defeat led to new deals in Washington. On July 11, General Halleck was made commander-in-chief of the Union armies, and in August McClellan was ordered back to Washington to aid in repelling threatening Confederate movements. General Lee, taking advantage of McClellan's inaction, had dispatched Jackson to the north to operate against Pope, and it was the success of these operations that led to McClellan's recall. As soon as Lee learned of the embarkation of the Federal army, he marched rapidly to Jackson's aid and joined him near the old Bull Run battlefield, where the combined forces administered a crushing defeat to General Pope. Finding that McClellan's troops held Washington and secured it against attack, Lee now marched up the Potomac and invaded Maryland, with the hope of gaining recruits and aid from that State. McClellan was at once put in command of Pope's army and sent in hasty pursuit, overtaking Lee's rear at South Mountain, where a sharp fight took place. Meanwhile Stonewall Jackson had captured Harper's Ferry and its garrison, and on September 17, 1862, the two armies met at Antietam Creek. Here a fierce two days' battle took place, ending in a night retreat of Lee across the Potomac, unpursued by McClellan. Both armies had met with heavy losses.

General McClellan's delay in pursu-



FARRAGUT ENGAGING THE CONFEDERATES AT MOBILE BAY

ing the retreating enemy gave much dissatisfaction to the Administration, and on October 6th he was ordered to cross the Potomac and give battle to Lee, or drive him south. His delay in doing this increased the annoyance of the President and on the 7th of November, he was removed from his command, General Burnside being appointed to replace him. The new commander had distinguished himself in the earlier part of the war and given valuable service at Antietam, but was not well fitted, as the event proved, for the new position given him. After some manouvering, he led his army to the banks of the Rappahannock River, opposite the city of Fredericksburg. Anticipating an attack on this city, General Lee made all haste to station his army on the hills in its rear.

Meanwhile, Commodore Farragut, with a strong fleet, had destroyed the Confederate fleet defending the Mississippi, and captured the forts. General Butler took possession of New Orleans, which he ruled with a vigorous hand. Its loss was a severe blow to the Confederacy. Farragut sailed up past Vicksburg and met Foote, who was co-operating with Grant to take Vicksburg, and aided in driving the Confederates from the Upper Mississippi.

We must go back a little. In the summer of 1862, General Bragg, with a Confederate army, made a dash from Chattanooga for Louisville. Buell started to intercept him, and gained the city by one day. Then Bragg retreated and Buell followed. The armies met at Perryville, Ky., October 8th, and a heavy battle was fought, but only a portion of either army was engaged. Bragg was beaten back, but the defeat was not so decisive as might have been the case had the Federal army been concentrated. Grant had sent troops with Buell, and the Confederates again took the initiative, Generals Price and Van Dorn attempting to defeat the Federal army in detail. There were unimportant battles at Iuka and Holly Springs, and then the two Confederate armies united. Rosecrans met them at Cor-

inth and gave them a severe defeat, driving them forty miles in a complete rout. There was dissatisfaction with Buell for his failure to destroy Bragg, probably unfounded, and Rosecrans was given command of Buell's army. Bragg now attempted another Northern raid, but was met by Rosecrans at Stone River, near Murfreesboro. The battle lasted two days (December 31 and January 2, 1862-3), with one day's intermission. The losses on both sides were among the severest of the war. Bragg was defeated, and moved South in good order.

In the meantime, Grant had sent Sherman, in December, 1862, to attack Vicksburg, the chief stronghold of the Confederates on the Mississippi. He failed in this effort, largely from the difficult character of the country. Early in 1863, the Confederates were driven out of Missouri. General Curtis was sent with a large army to meet Price and Van Dorn. He met them at Pea Ridge, Arkansas, March 6th to 8th, and, after a hard battle, defeated them decisively. After one more movement north, the Confederates were entirely driven out of Missouri, and got no foothold again during the war.

The last battle of the year, in the East, was at Fredericksburg. Burnside threw his army across the river (December 13, 1862) to attack the Confederates. A portion of the army succeeded, but, owing either to poor plans, lack of concert or failure to get orders in time, the army again failed to act in concert. The main attack on Marye's Heights, behind the town, was repulsed by the Confederates with terrible slaughter, and the movement came to an end. Burnside was relieved and General Joseph Hooker placed in command.

The war had now lasted nearly two years. In the East there had been no advantages gained, and the Federal armies had been defeated, except in West Virginia and Maryland. In the West, the Federal forces held most of Western Tennessee and the northern portion of Mississippi; and in the South, New Orleans and vicinity. This

was not very encouraging to the North, and the elections went against the Republicans. The Democrats elected a majority of the House of Representatives, but a majority of the whole was favorable to a vigorous prosecution of the war. On January 1, 1863, Lincoln, after ninety day's notice, issued a proclamation declaring free all slaves in that portion of the Confederacy not occupied by Federal arms. He had determined to do this if Lee should fail in his Northern raid. The proclamation was not received with unanimous favor, as many felt that the question at issue was the Union and not slavery, not understanding how the two were connected.

Let us look back at foreign affairs for a moment. That arch-intermeddler, Napoleon III, Emperor of the French, was ready to interfere on behalf of the South, if he were backed by Great Britain. At this time the British Cabinet was not particularly friendly to the North. Cotton was needed for the factories, and to outsiders it seemed as if the Confederacy might win. The so-called Trent Affair nearly won over Great Britain at first, but eventually ranged her on the side of the Federal Government. The first commissioners sent abroad had accomplished nothing, not even an emissary to the Pope, who declined to interfere so long as slavery was recognized by the Confederacy. Late in 1861, President Davis sent James M. Mason and John Slidell as Ministers to Great Britain and France, to negotiate for a recognition of independence, claiming that cotton was a world staple obtainable only from the Confederacy, and must not be blockaded, and claiming that the blockade was not effective, and, therefore, under the laws of Nations, not valid. Unfortunately for this last contention, the Ministers or Commissioners and their families had hard work in running the blockade and reaching Havana. In the latter city they were received with great demonstrations of joy. They took passage on the British Steamer Trent for St. Thomas, intending to proceed thence

to England. Captain Wilkes, of the U. S. Steamship San Jacinto, heard of this and resolved to capture them. On November 8, 1861, he stopped the Trent, took off the Commissioners and Secretaries, and let the steamer proceed. Great was the joy in the North over this, and great the anger in Great Britain. The latter took the initiative, and sent an ultimatum to the United States. Yet it was not intended to force an issue. The dying Prince Consort Albert toned down the dispatches, and the British Minister at Washington, Lord Lyons, was instructed to allow a reasonable time for a reply. Secretary Seward spent a week on the subject, which was an important one, as a failure to give up the captured Commissioners meant a foreign war. His reply was that the seizure of the Trent was legal, but that Wilkes should have brought her into a prize court for adjudication and, because he did not, the Commissioners were entitled to be returned to Great Britain. This was done, and though it was a bitter bill, it saved Great Britain from ensuring the success of the Confederacy. When Messrs. Mason and Slidell reached Europe they got no encouragement. Foreign intervention was never secured, and no aid except from blockade runners for private account and the laxity of British officials in allowing the Confederate cruisers Florida, Alabama and Shenandoah to be built in British ports and to go forth to prey on the commerce of the United States. Another cruiser was built, but was never let out of the dock because an Englishman gave a \$5,000,000 bond in favor of the British Ministry for a few days. To cover this, an equal amount of United States bonds were issued and hurried to England. It took Mr. Chittenden, Register of the Treasury, many hours of continuous labor to sign these bonds, and he never recovered from a partial paralysis due to the labor involved. For many years it was customary to speak of these vessels as privateers, but the best American writers now concede that they were full-fledged Confederate cruisers, un-

der the laws of nations, and entitled to do their work when once in commission. There were some Confederate privateers which did some damage to American commerce, but they were comparatively a small factor. The Florida, after an exciting career, was captured in violation of neutrality laws, but sank before Brazil, the offended nation, could secure her return. It is believed that her loss was not accidental. The Alabama destroyed many vessels, and swept American commerce from the seas. She was finally destroyed June 19, 1864, by the U. S. Steamship Kearsarge, off Cherbourg. The Shenandoah went to sea late and cruised principally in the South seas, where she did great damage, even after the war was over. Learning of the end she steamed into Liverpool and hauled down her flag.

The principal event of 1862 was the appearance of the Monitor as a new factor in warfare. In 1861 the chief navy yard in the country was near Norfolk, Va. Every effort was made to protect this, but a series of accidents, misconstruction of orders and fear of capture led to its loss. The principal vessels could have been saved, but this was in April, 1861, when the administration was coquetting with Virginia—all to no purpose. Too late the order was issued to sail away, the Confederates were coming; the vessels were blown up, and the principal buildings burned, but a great mass of valuable war material, principally cannon, fell into the hands of the Confederates.

The destruction at this time was not so great as was supposed. Subsequent events showed that the Federals could have preserved most all of the equipment, but, in the haste to destroy after evacuation had proved a failure, the work was not complete. When Virginia joined the Confederacy it was found that great stores of cannon and ammunition had been saved, while the vessels supposedly destroyed were not beyond redemption. One of the war vessels, the Merrimac, was raised and rebuilt as an ironclad. She was cut down to the hull, a slanting roof pro-

tected by iron was placed on her deck, and she was altered as far as possible to be the most complete fighting machine afloat. In March, 1862, she steamed down to Hampton Roads, near Fortress Monroe, to do all the damage she could, and to sail up the Potomac, if possible. On both sides the situation was overestimated. The Confederates knew that the vessel was vulnerable, while the Federals overestimated her powers. If the Merrimac could destroy the fleet in Hampton Roads, what might she not accomplish? The frigate Cumberland was destroyed easily March 8, 1862, and the Minnesota grounded, but the Merrimac retired to Norfolk without completing the destruction of the latter. That night the Monitor arrived to protect the Federal fleet. She was the invention of John Ericsson, and from this vessel all modern navies have in some respects been modeled. Her hull was almost entirely below water, and on her flat deck an iron turret was placed, which revolved on an axis. In the turret were two large guns. For that day she was invulnerable, but she was far from being perfect. A hot duel ensued next day with the Merrimac, in which neither vessel was seriously injured, but the Merrimac withdrew to Norfolk and was blown up when that city was evacuated soon afterwards. The Monitor was subsequently lost at sea. It marked a decisive era in the history of the war, though it is doubtful if the Merrimac could really have threatened Washington very seriously, as was supposed, if the Monitor had not arrived.

The year 1863 is generally looked upon as the decisive year of the war, though fighting continued until the spring of 1865. The campaign may be said to have been begun in December, 1862, by General Burnside, who was in command of the Army of the Potomac, and fought on the 13th and 14th, a desperate and fruitless conflict at Fredericksburg. He was succeeded in command by General Joseph Hooker. At the center General Rosecrans fought the desperate and successful battle at Stone River, near Murfreesboro, and

advanced to Central Tennessee. In the West General Grant began to draw in on Vicksburg, which controlled the Mississippi. The plan of campaign involved forward movements of the three armies, which should have been simultaneous, but were not.

Hooker, in May, evolved a plan to drive Lee out of Fredericksburg, and defeat him in open battle. The plans were well laid, and up to a certain point well executed. The Federal army crossed the Rappahannock, and one corps made an attack on Fredericksburg, while the main part of the army engaged General Lee. The battle took place in the Wilderness (May 1-4, 1863), while Hooker's headquarters were at the Chancellor House, which gives the name of Chancellorsville to the battle. Leaving a sufficient force to defend Fredericksburg, Lee marched against Hooker and one of the great battles of the war ensued. The striking feature of it was a flank movement made by Stonewall Jackson by a long detour through the wooded country. He was very successful in this movement, driving the Federal flank back in utter disorder, but Jackson was severely wounded by a mistaken volley from his own men, and died soon after. The battle ended in the defeat of Hooker. No further movement was made until June, when Lee resolved on another raid to the North, in the hope that victory would lead foreign nations to interfere on behalf of the Confederacy. His army was divided into three infantry corps under Hill, Ewell and Longstreet, and a cavalry corps commanded by J. E. B. Stuart. The movement was so quiet that some days elapsed before Hooker discovered it and started in pursuit. Lee's main army crossed the Potomac not far from Harper's Ferry, and invaded Pennsylvania, the cavalry crossing near Washington and reaching the Susquehanna. Hooker pushed hard after, but on the road was superseded by one of his corps commanders, General Meade. The two armies were spread over a large territory, but the first conflict came July 1, 1863, near the village of Gettysburg,

Pennsylvania. Early in the fight the Federal General Reynolds was killed, but General Howard, who soon arrived with his corps, took command. The Confederates concentrated more rapidly than the Federals, and the first day went hard against the latter, who finally retired to a ridge several miles long, extending from Cemetery Hill to Big Round Top, though the ridge was badly broken through in one place by a ravine not far from Little Round Top. On July 2d Lee took the offensive, and made heavy onslaughts at both ends of the Federal line. He gained some success with heavy loss, but could not break the lines. On July 3d he tried to smash the center. The divisions of Pickett and Pettigrew, with some additional troops, about 15,000 in all, were marched a mile across the valley to pierce the center on Cemetery Ridge. It was one of the most magnificent attempts in history, but it failed. The Confederates were decimated by an enfilading fire before they reached the Federal line, and were driven back in confusion with heavy loss. At the same time Stuart's effort to break through the rear was prevented. The campaign was a failure. After sustaining terrible losses, Lee was compelled to retreat. This he did in a masterly way, and reached Virginia almost without molestation. The rest of the year there was a series of maneuvers on both sides to get into desirable position, but there was little fighting, and both armies went into winter quarters, leaving matters much as they were when the year opened.

In the West there was a different state of affairs. After tremendous labor, General Grant succeeded in crossing the Mississippi, getting his army below Vicksburg, and besieged the city from the rear. The Confederates were defeated in several important battles, and Jackson was taken. A final assault on the earthworks of Vicksburg was repelled with heavy loss, but the city, under General Pemberton, capitulated July 4, 1863. Shortly after the Confederates at Port Hudson, where alone on the river they were in force, sur-

rendered, and the Mississippi ran unvexed to the sea. An expedition was sent up the Red River on a raid, but it had no strategic value. The expedition was unsuccessful, and got back again with great difficulty, as the river had fallen rapidly.

The next move was made at the center. Rosecrans moved his army south and invaded Georgia. The success of Grant at Vicksburg led Rosecrans into fancied security, for his army was stretched over a wide section when he was confronted, in September, by a strong Confederate force under Bragg, reinforced by Longstreet from Lee's army. The first day's fighting (September 19, 1863) along the Chickamauga Creek, was undecisive, and during the night Rosecrans concentrated his army. The next day the fighting was furious, but the Federals held their own until the blunder of an officer allowed a brigade to be withdrawn, leaving a large gap in the center. Into this gap Longstreet hurled his legion and doubled up the Federal line both ways, inflicting a most disastrous defeat. Thomas alone, on the Federal left, held firm and gained the name of "the Rock of Chickamauga." The army retreated to Chattanooga and was soon besieged, leaving only a wagon road open for supplies. Rosecrans was relieved from command, and was succeeded by Thomas.

General Grant was now placed in command of all the armies of the West, and went at once to Chattanooga. In a short time he had the army well fed and equipped. General Sherman was sent with a corps to attack Bragg's forces on Missionary Ridge. General Thomas was to aid in this attack, while General Hooker, with two corps from the Army of the Potomac, was to capture Lookout Mountain. In two days the Confederates were completely dislodged and driven South. The battle above the clouds, on Lookout (November 24, 1863), and the charge up Missionary Ridge (November 25th) were two spectacular and important military events of the war. Immediately afterward Grant sent Sherman to the relief

of Burnside, who was besieged at Knoxville by Longstreet. The siege was raised, and Longstreet joined Lee in Virginia.

The Confederacy was now not only split, but had lost control of Louisiana, Tennessee and portions of other States; but there was no talk of surrender. Grant was made Lieutenant-General, and placed in command of all the armies. His plan of campaign was simple. All the armies were to co-operate and make for Richmond. Sherman was placed in command in the West. Grant remained in the East, where Meade still commanded the Army of the Potomac and Butler the Army of the James. In May, 1864, the forward movements began. Grant threw his army across the Rapidan and fought successive battles in the Wilderness, at North Anna and Cold Harbor, in which the losses were terrible on both sides. Lee would not come from behind his entrenchments, and Grant could not get over them, but Lee could not stop Grant's progress. Finding it impossible to get Lee into open battle, Grant threw his army across the James and besieged Petersburg during the rest of the year, and until the next spring. When Grant was fighting Lee, General Early swooped down and threatened Washington, but was driven off.

The Shenandoah Valley had long been the storehouse of the Confederacy, and Federal attempts to control it had not been successful. Banks, Hunter and others had been driven out, and Winchester had repeatedly changed hands. Grant now sent General Sheridan there, who swept the valley from one end to the other, inflicting, in September, 1864, serious defeats on General Early, who opposed him. After this the valley remained in Federal control.

In the West Sherman marched to Atlanta, after being opposed with great ability by the Confederates under General Joe Johnston. The latter did not want to fight unless compelled to do so, as his army was small. Sherman also did not care to fight unless

necessary, so a brilliant succession of military maneuvers took place, in which Sherman was successful. As a result, General Hood was appointed to succeed Johnston, and made several severe attacks, only to meet with defeat. After the fall of Atlanta, he made a movement northward, with the purpose of cutting Sherman's communications in Tennessee. Thomas was sent to Nashville to deal with him, while Sherman, with his main army, marched across Georgia to Savannah, which he reached about Christmas, 1864. Meanwhile Farragut, with his fleet, had captured Mobile and Schofield had defeated Hood at Franklin, Tennessee, in one of the bloodiest battles of the war, and fallen back on Nashville. In December, 1864, Thomas came out and, in a two days' battle, utterly defeated Hood so that his army never again became an effective force. This ended the war in the West, except for fighting on a small scale. In February, 1865, Stephens, with two others, met Lincoln at Hampton Roads and tried to arrange peace, but it was not successful, as Lincoln demanded that the Union be kept intact and the slaves freed.

Meanwhile Sherman started north to meet Grant, before Richmond, but was met by Johnston, with a small army, in North Carolina. Grant did not wait for Sherman. It was evident that Lee must evacuate Richmond, and his plan was to join Johnston and defeat Sherman. This plan was foiled. Petersburg fell April 2, 1865, and Richmond on the third. Then there was a week's race and hard fighting to the southwest, but Grant was ahead, and finally Lee surrendered his whole army at Appomattox Court House on April 9, 1865. Grant paroled the whole army, and allowed the men to take home their horses to begin farming. A few days later Sherman received terms from Johnston, which were not satisfactory, and then, after some friction between Sherman and the administration, Johnston surrendered on the same terms as Lee, and the war was over, other small armies surrendering in a short time without a struggle. The army

disbanded quickly, the men returning to their homes, and soon but 50,000 men were left under arms. The liberal land laws to veterans let thousands of the late soldiers go West and take up claims. In this way Kansas and Nebraska soon had a thriving population.

Meanwhile important events had taken place. Lincoln had been re-elected, in 1864, after a bitter struggle. There was a large section of the Democrats of the North dissatisfied with the conduct of the war, and these chose General McClellan for their candidate. Fremont had been nominated by dissatisfied Republicans, but he withdrew before the election. Lincoln had an overwhelming majority in the Electoral College, but the popular vote was as follows: Lincoln, 2,216,067; McClellan, 1,808,725. Electoral vote: Lincoln, 212; McClellan, 21.

This showed a closer division than might have been expected. McClellan received almost the same number of votes that Lincoln got in 1860, while Lincoln gained less than 400,000. The slavery question was still in politics. The Emancipation Proclamation had not been received well in some portions of the North, where the question of slavery was of less importance than of preserving the Union, and it was feared it would prevent a restoration on any terms. It appeared to Mr. Lincoln that re-election by Republican votes alone was impossible, so he determined to secure the nomination of a War Democrat for Vice-President. He first offered the nomination to General Butler, who declined it, and then to Andrew Johnson, who accepted it. Johnson was a man of little education, but of great will power. He had been Governor of Tennessee, Senator, and then Military Governor, rising from the tailor's bench in a little mountain town.

Great was the joy in the North over the fall of Richmond and the surrender of Lee. Just four years had the fighting lasted, and peace was welcomed with the wildest enthusiasm, only to be dampened by the murder of the President. On the night of Good Fri-

day, April 14, 1865, in Ford's Theatre, Washington, John Wilkes Booth, the actor, entered the box where the President was seated, shot him, and jumping to the stage, shouting "Sic semper tyrannis." He broke the bones of his ankle in the jump from the box, but managed to escape and, by the aid of Confederates, crossed the Potomac and got into Virginia, but in a few days was discovered. Refusing to surrender, he was shot. On the same night that Lincoln was shot, Secretary Seward was stabbed seriously, and Grant escaped only by absence from the city. Lincoln survived until Saturday morning, April 15, 1865, but died without recovering consciousness.

Terrible was the wrath of the North over the event, and the best men in the South regretted it equally, for all had come to respect Lincoln, and they realized that his murder would be laid upon the South, which would suffer accordingly—a presentiment that was correct. It developed that there was a small conspiracy involved, but that it included no one outside of Washington and was not inspired by any Southern leaders. Just how much each of the parties to the conspiracy knew is uncertain. The meetings were at the home of Mrs. Surratt. The others who were found to be most closely involved were men named Harold, Payne and Atzerott, who, with Mrs. Surratt, were executed. Others who in any way aided Booth to escape were punished severely.

Could the Confederacy have had a steady outlet for cotton it could have kept up the struggle much longer.

It was with this purpose in view that Mr. Davis sent Mason and Slidell to Great Britain and France; but the failure was as complete as was an appeal to the Pope at Rome, who made the abolishment of slavery a *sine qua non* of recognition. This, of course, was impossible. The Confederacy first resorted to loans guaranteed by cotton, and for a time their loans sold well, but when cotton was no longer allowed to leave the country except as captured by the Federals, there was difficulty in

making loans on any good basis. The Confederate expenses were enormous, because of the great risk in getting in supplies from abroad. There were few good mechanics in the South, and few foundries; the Tredegar Iron Works, at Richmond, was the only first-class establishment of its kind in the Confederacy. When loans from the States and bond sales failed to raise money, resort was had to paper currency, which was issued in large amounts. Just how much was current will never be known. The workmanship on the notes was poor, and counterfeits in the North were easily made, so that the South was swamped with paper money. It declined steadily with the fortunes of the Confederate arms, and after the war it became, along with the bonds, entirely worthless. Many of these bonds were held abroad. In fairness it can be said that the finances of the Confederacy were never well handled, even considering all the difficulties involved.

The Federal Government was more fortunate. After a short period of gloom and despair the Northern people resolved to stick together. A meeting of the leading bankers was held and money was furnished for a time almost as called for. The Treasury also issued interest bearing notes for small denominations, but even these were not sufficient for the strain. When it was found that there was to be a long and bloody war, entirely original measures were taken. The National Banking System, substantially as it now is, was established. This had the two-fold effect of marketing bonds and providing currency for the needs of the people. Income and internal revenue taxes were laid on many articles. Specie payments were suspended, but no great disaster came. Finally, non-interest bearing Treasury notes to the amount of nearly \$450,000,000 were issued to pay war expenses. These were never on a par with gold, falling to about 40 per cent. at one time, but fluctuating according to the success of the Federal arms. After the war they rose in value rapidly, but did not reach par until

1878. During the most trying part of the war Mr. Chase was at the head of the Treasury, but, on the death of Chief Justice Taney, succeeded him and Hugh McCullough became Secretary. During the war most of the bonds were sold through the agency of Jay Cooke, of Philadelphia—the fourth man from that city to finance our Government in a war. By August, 1865, the National debt, which was only about \$80,000,000 in 1860, had reached \$2,845,000,000. About \$800,000,000 was raised during the war by customs duties, internal revenue and direct taxes.

The death of Lincoln in 1865 caused unparalleled sorrow and alarm. It was not only that a beloved leader was dead, but it was believed that a great conspiracy existed to reopen the war and destroy the fruits of victory. In time this was found to be untrue, but the belief had a great effect on subsequent history. Revenge for Lincoln's death and belief in the treacherous nature of Southern people were responsible for much of the subsequent legislation that bore so hard on the South. Indeed, it is hard to estimate the direct and indirect influence Booth's act had upon the late Confederate States. Directly we can trace some of it, but indirectly we can only estimate what might have been done under the wise direction of Abraham Lincoln, whose last official act was connected with a speedy restoration of the Union. That Lincoln would have encountered opposition from Congress is certain, but that his commanding position would have enabled him to deal with reconstruction in a way that would have commanded general support is unquestioned. Lincoln had the mature judgment, the plastic touch, and the great heart that would have found a solution to the greatest problem of the age without all the troubles that came in its train.

To digress a moment: Sheridan was sent with an army to Texas, ready, if necessary, to drive the French out of Mexico, where Napoleon III had set an Austrian Prince on the Imperial throne, but the French retired, and

Emperor Maximilian was executed. At the Hampton Roads conference Stephens hoped that a foreign war would bring about domestic peace. His idea was to combine both armies and march against Mexico, and then settle internal differences afterward. This was, of course, rejected by Mr. Lincoln.

All eyes now turned on Andrew Johnson, who at once took the oath of office, and his unfortunate condition at the time gave rise to exaggerated reports of his drunkenness. In his speech he made no reference to Lincoln, but used the first personal pronoun freely. This made a bad impression. He retained Mr. Lincoln's Cabinet—the only accidental President to take such action. As has been said, Johnson was a Democrat, without culture and very headstrong. At first he proposed to make "treason odious." Being a Southern man, many Southern leaders feared a drastic policy, and many civil and military officers of the late Confederacy fled the country. Wiser counsels prevailed, however, and Johnson, under the influence of his Cabinet, was induced to take a different course. Then he went to the other extreme. Davis was put in a military prison, but subsequently released on bail, and never tried for treason. Amnesty was granted under conditions, from time to time, until only the high civil and military officers were exempt, and to these it was generally granted on application, until Congress, in alarm, took that duty on itself. Congress was not called in session during the rest of the year, and though many leaders had grave doubts about the new President, the Republican party seemed satisfied with Johnson's administration, as he was generally endorsed at State conventions.

The administration was busy at work on the question of reconstruction. It had been the policy of President Lincoln to recognize any lately seceded States whenever 10 per cent. of the loyal voters of 1860 formed a government under proper restrictions. This was done by Louisiana and Arkansas, but after a controversy with the President, the most serious of his adminis-

tration, Congress finally refused to recognize this reconstruction. Johnson continued this plan on a liberal scale. He appointed provisional Governors, and urged all the States to form governments by votes of the loyal white citizens, including those who were amnestied, and resume peaceful pursuits, holding that there never had been and never could be legal secession, and that the Union was intact. Now, this was the Republican theory, but, in practice, it was desired that some bonds be given for future conduct, and that restoration to sovereignty and membership in the Union must be preceded by Congressional action.

The thirteenth amendment to the Constitution, forever forbidding slavery, was ratified and proclaimed in 1865. Great was the indignation in the radical section of the Republican party when, in December, 1865, members of Congress elected from some of the States lately in revolt applied for admission. Some of these, including Stephens, appeared and took the "iron clad" oath that they had been loyal to the Government. In these States regular forms of government had been set up in accordance with Presidential proclamation. They adopted new Constitutions, in which slavery was eliminated; elected Legislatures which adopted the thirteenth amendment, abolishing slavery (which had been proposed by the preceding Congress), and elected Senators, while the people chose Representatives. By acting in accord with the executive proclamation these States expected to be received back into the Union on the terms laid down. Congress refused admission to these members, declaring Congressional action was necessary to reconstruction; thus leaving the late Confederate States in the position of being neither in the Union nor out of it. Much of the objection was due to the fact that the new Southern Legislatures passed laws regarding vagrant negroes, which, if carried out, would have in many cases made their lot little worse than before. Southerners replied that there were modeled on the master and servant

statutes of New England—which were, however, seldom executed, as the custom of indenturing had gone out of use. Congress had already passed the Freedman's Bureau Act, by which aid was given to the freedman, through the Bureau, whose agents were army officers, not all of whom were fit men. Grant complained bitterly of some of these men, but many were honest and efficient. Congress passed a new act, extending the powers of the Bureau, but the President vetoed it. Then another similar act was passed, vetoed, and passed over the President's head. The break between Congress and the President was complete. Congress wanted to reconstruct the Union in its own way, and ignored or denied the President's authority. Unfortunately it had as yet no definite plan. Johnson was as firm for his prerogatives as was any Stuart King, and the clash came. An act giving the negro civil rights was likewise vetoed, and passed over the President's head. The President was greatly disappointed, and, in a tour of the country, made some very radical and unusual speeches, declaring that Congress was not a legal Congress, because it denied admission to legally elected members from the South. Radical men in Congress believed Johnson to be in secret alliance with the South, and the fight became bitter. The fourteenth amendment to the Constitution was finally ratified and proclaimed in 1868. It defined citizenship, provided for apportionment of Representatives, prohibited former National or State officers who had sworn allegiance to the Government, and had joined the Confederacy, from holding office, unless their disabilities were removed by Congress, confirming the public debt, and prohibited the payment of any Confederate debts. After long delay, in 1867, two acts were passed, on which reconstruction was based. The late Confederacy was divided into five military districts, each under the control of a General, and past attempts at reconstruction were ignored, except provisionally. Drastic provisions were made for forming new governments,

among which negro suffrage was practically provided for, and which required adoption of the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution. The second act required the "iron clad oath" to be given voters (save those who had accepted amnesty), by which only those were given the ballot who were not disfranchised for rebellion. All were disfranchised who had previously taken the oath of allegiance and violated it, so that nearly all the white men of any prominence in the South were disfranchised, while the negroes voted and got many of the offices. The result of this legislation was that the State Governments set up only represented a minority of the wealth and intelligence of the States; and, as many of the officials were recent comers from the North, the so-called "carpet bag governments" were the result. In most cases these governments were failures; the Legislatures were often either ignorant or corrupt, or both, and enormous debts were created, usually for building railways, much of which was absolutely wasted. A large part of these debts was afterward repudiated by the States. Finally, after the passage by Congress of the fifteenth amendment, giving the negro the right to vote (adopted 1870), the remaining unreconstructed States were obliged to adopt that amendment or be kept out. This legislation was carried in the House under the leadership of Thaddeus Stevens, of Pennsylvania, who maintained a power over legislation never equaled in that body. In justice it should be said that the greatest prejudice against the South was in the minds of those who had never been in the war. Those who had fought were in a different position. They respected men who fought to the last ditch for their opinions. It is believed that Abraham Lincoln contemplated calling a convention of all the Federal and Confederate officers above the rank of Brigadier-General to consider the state of the Union, and that good results would have been obtained.

The result of this controversy was a violent attack by Congress on the Presi-

dent, who was now on bad terms with General Grant—now Commander of the army with the rank of Lieutenant-General. Laws were passed, over his veto, practically taking away his command of the army, and requiring all orders to be sent through the Commander of the army, who should live at the Capitol. The Tenure of Office Act was passed, making it illegal for a President to remove any of his Federal appointees from office without the consent of the Senate, and finally an attempt at impeachment was made, which failed. All this time the President had kept Lincoln's Cabinet; and to his credit be it said that he executed all the laws passed over his veto. But, during the recess of Congress, he removed Secretary Stanton and put Grant in his place. When the Senate convened it refused to confirm Grant, who resigned, and Stanton took his old place. Johnson again removed him and appointed Adjutant-General Lorenzo Thomas. For this Johnson was impeached by the House and tried by the Senate on many grounds, but the main point at issue was whether Johnson had really violated the Tenure of Office Act. While the defense showed clearly enough that there had been so such violation, inasmuch as Stanton was an appointee of Lincoln and not of Johnson, party spirit ran so high that there was only one vote lacking of the two-thirds necessary to convict. A number of Republicans who voted against conviction were consigned to political infamy, and suffered a political martyrdom that was in some cases most painful. Yet of those who voted for conviction and lived twenty years thereafter, many admitted that they were moved largely by political considerations, that their judgment was warped by the excitement of the times, and that Johnson did not deserve conviction. It is generally believed now that he wanted to carry out Lincoln's policy, as he incorrectly understood it, but that his defects of temperament and character and his lack of calm judgment, together with his inordinate ambition and ridiculous vanity, made it impos-

sible to command the confidence of the people. He was restrained by his Cabinet from doing many things he wished, while the public often censured Seward for remaining in the Cabinet; he did the country a great service by so doing. If Johnson had not been restrained, the consequences would have been very serious for the nation. History has done justice to both parties to this controversy. Both sides were honest in intention, but warped in judgment by circumstances. Those who sit down calmly in a later age to distribute praise and blame must remember that human nature is stronger than human law, and too often is in defiance of Divine commandment. Truly did the bard of all time say: "Forbear to judge, for we are sinners all." Both made mistakes, but, if we may judge by the results, Johnson's plan was in the main correct. So long as the military arm gave protection the reconstruction governments were sustained in power. When that arm was withdrawn the white people in the South resumed possession of their States in no pleasant frame of mind, and the negro was practically eliminated from the franchise in spite of the adoption of the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the Constitution, which were supposed to guarantee him power and self-protection. Indeed, the hope of the negro is not in the past legislation of Congress, but in the lines laid down by Booker T. Washington and others of the race, who clearly see that the negro must fully win respect by his own character and his deeds before he can be equal with the Saxon in treatment, as he is in the law that cannot be executed.

The rest of Johnson's administration was uneventful. The Republicans, in 1868, at Philadelphia, nominated General Grant for President and Speaker Schuyler Colfax, of Indiana, for Vice-President. The Democrats nominated Horatio Seymour, of New York, and Francis P. Blair, of Missouri. The result was never in doubt, Grant winning by a large vote, both popular and electoral, as follows: Grant and Col-

fax, 3,015,071; Seymour and Blair, 2,709,613; Republican majority, 305,458.

Grant had 214 and Seymour 80 electoral votes; Mississippi, Texas and Virginia, with 23 votes, not voting.

One event in Johnson's administration must not be overlooked. In 1867, by a treaty with Russia, we purchased Alaska for \$7,500,000. There was great opposition to the purchase, but time has justified it. There is a story current to the effect that this alleged purchase was merely a blind to repay Russia for fitting out her fleet ready to interfere on our side if France and Great Britain came to the aid of the Confederacy. The story is not confirmed, but it is certain that Russia was our firm friend all through the war.

The career of Andrew Johnson exhibits a peculiar phase in our social system—the possibilities that wait upon citizens of the most humble origin. Mr. Johnson was born in Raleigh, North Carolina, late in 1808. His parents were poor and lowly; and at the age of four years he was bereft of his father. Without an hour's schooling he was apprenticed to a tailor at the age of ten years, and during that service he taught himself to read. With his own hands he supported his mother, and with her he moved to Greenville, East Tennessee, when he was eighteen years of age. There he soon married an excellent girl, who taught him to write. The energy of his character, his sobriety and strength of mind, commended him to the citizens, and he was elected alderman of Greenville at the age of twenty, and mayor when he was twenty-one.

Mr. Johnson was possessed of a certain kind of rugged and ready oratory that made him very popular; also the elements and aspirations of an adroit politician; and he made his way upward in the path of distinction by his own indomitable will, passing successively through the offices of alderman, mayor, member of both houses of the Legislature of Tennessee, presidential elector, member of Congress, Governor of

Tennessee, National Senator, Vice-President and Acting-President of the United States. His moral nature was more feeble than his ambition, and yielded to it; and in his career as President that weakness prevented his achieving most enviable fame as a patriot and a benefactor of his race.

GRANT'S ADMINISTRATION.

Auspicious omens of peace and prosperity appeared at the beginning of President Grant's administration. The condition of public affairs, at home and abroad, seemed to promise a bright official career for the new Chief Magistrate. The only cloud seen in the firmament of our foreign relations that betokened future difficulties was the irritation felt concerning the depredations of the *Alabama* under the tacit sanction of the British Government. The Government of the United States claimed for its citizens payment for the damages inflicted upon them by that Anglo-Confederate cruiser.

To effect a peaceful solution of the difficulty, Reverdy Johnson, of Maryland, was sent to England in 1868 to negotiate a treaty for that purpose, but his mission did not have a satisfactory result. The treaty agreed to was almost universally condemned by his countrymen, and it was rejected by the Senate by a vote of fifty-four against one. Mr. Johnson was recalled, and J. Lothrop Motley, the historian, was appointed American Minister to the British court, charged with the negotiation of another treaty for the same purpose. Mr. Motley was no more successful in that particular mission than was his predecessor, and General Grant recalled him in 1870. The matter was finally settled by arbitration.

At an early period of Grant's administration an important amendment to the National Constitution was proposed, by Mr. Julian, of Indiana, for securing the ballot to women, in the following form:

"The right of suffrage in the United States shall be based on citizenship, and

shall be regulated by Congress; and all the citizens of the United States, whether native or naturalized, shall enjoy this right equally, without any distinction or discrimination whatever, founded on sex."

As the first section of the fourteenth amendment declares that "all persons, born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof (without an allusion to sex) are citizens of the United States, and of the State wherein they reside," this amendment clearly gives to women the rights and privileges of citizens. No action has since been taken by Congress on the subject; but organizations for effecting that object exist, and the matter will not be allowed to slumber indefinitely, for justice demands such a fundamental law. The right to the exercise of the elective franchise is guaranteed to our colored citizens; do women less deserve the privilege?

The great event in railroad history was the completion of the first trans-continental railway. This project, suggested as far back as 1848, had been indorsed by both political parties as a necessity and the Government urged to aid it. No private capital would undertake it, and the Government did not care to go into the business on its own account. As a compromise it was proposed that the Government loan 6 per cent. bonds to a corporation which should build the road and give first mortgage bonds for these advances. By the act of 1862 the Government was to give \$16,000 per mile, in its own bonds, and a liberal land grant. Owing to the war even this liberal offer could not be accepted by any corporation, as that part of the line across the Rocky Mountains would be enormously expensive. In 1864 the corporation that had been formed for the work succeeded in getting Congress to double the land grant, giving half the land for ten miles on each side of the road, allowing \$32,000 per mile on the more difficult section and \$48,000 per mile in the mountain sections, while taking a first mortgage lien on the road. Even

this liberal offer did not attract capital to an enterprise which was believed to be, if not an engineering impossibility, at least a scheme which would be financially disastrous. This should be remembered in connection with the scandals which followed. As the work was too great for one corporation, it was divided. One company, the Central Pacific, was to build east from San Francisco, and the other, the Union Pacific, west from Omaha, until they met on the line already agreed on by engineers. The western end of the work was undertaken by Leland Stanford, C. P. Huntington, Mark Hopkins, Charles Crocker and a few others, without any knowledge of railroad construction; all being comparatively poor men. They amassed fortunes, and have been subject to much abuse, but it should be remembered that they did a work no one else would undertake, while the nation has been greatly benefited by their enterprise.

The eastern end was constructed largely by the energy of Oakes and Oliver Ames, of Boston, who met with the greatest difficulties in getting capital to complete the forty-mile sections before Congressional aid was available. As no contractor could undertake so large a work, construction was sublet to a corporation known as "the Credit Mobiler" (borrowing a French name from similar institutions in France), which contracted for the whole work. Shares of this stock were undoubtedly sold to Congressmen to influence their votes on the second bill granting aid to the road, and in some cases the payment was made long after delivery. At least stock, which soon became very valuable, was carried in their names, to be paid for on demand, for their benefit. This of itself was originally considered as legitimate as to own national bank stock, which was affected by Congressional legislation. This was called "doing evil for a good purpose," but such sophistry did not avert a scandal. A committee of Congressmen, some years later, investigated the subject, and Oakes Ames was recommended to be expelled; as the alleged

misdemeanor was in a previous Congress, he was only censured, and died soon afterward, partly of chagrin, after doing what he felt to be a national service. Many whose names were connected with the scandal were driven from public life, though some survived it. All denied improper motives, but such excuses were not received. It is true that the road was of immense public value, that it was a strategic and commercial necessity, but it is also true that proper aid could or should have been secured without improper methods. Nevertheless, posterity has been kind to Oakes Ames and has been inclined to forgive one who erred on the side of the country's good, even if he did profit by it and use bad methods.

Yankee ingenuity was taxed to its utmost in constructing this line. There were great rivers to bridge, mountain ranges to cross, and new problems to solve. The Indians were hostile, the cost of construction exceeded expectations, and finally the Union Pacific Company had to confess that it needed more help. Again the great financiers were asked to aid by taking second mortgage bonds, and they refused. In this emergency the company again went to Congress and asked that the Government take a second lien for its money, so that first mortgage bonds could be sold in the market. It was getting this legislation through that most of the scandals occurred. Congress assented and money was raised to complete the work. Toward the end there was an exciting race between the two companies to see which would lay the most track. The rails joined at Promontory Point, near Ogden, Utah, and on May 10, 1869, the golden spike was driven that united San Francisco and New York by rail. The occasion was made one of great festivity all over the country, and with good reason, for it not only bound East and West, but stimulated other enterprises of the same kind, until now there are half a dozen transcontinental lines, most of which received some Government aid in the way of land grants, and some in money also. The total Government cash paid

for all the lines amounted to \$64,633,512, but as very little interest was paid the total sum due in 1898 was several times as much. A Government commission estimated the total actual cost of the Central Pacific at \$58,000,000, and the Union Pacific at \$50,720,000.

One result of the building of the transcontinental railway was the discovery that between the Missouri River and the Sierra Nevadas were some of the richest portions of the country, available for agriculture and grazing, and rich in gold, silver and copper. These mines have produced more wealth than those of California. Moreover, the railway hastened the movement of the population westward, so that by 1870 there were a million along the line of the road, whereas in 1860 there had been but a few thousand. From 1870 onward the development was rapid. Nevada was made a State during the Civil War (1864), for political reasons. Since the completion of the road there have been organized west of the Missouri the States of North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, Wyoming, Idaho, Washington, Utah and Colorado, none of which probably would have become a State in the Nineteenth Century save for the Government aided railways. In 1898 the Union Pacific and Central Pacific mortgages fell due and were paid, as to the former principal and interest, and principal and part interest as to the latter were to be paid in the ensuing ten years. So the Government got its money back and made millions by the sale of lands, which would have been worthless had not the railroads been constructed. In spite of scandals in Congress, stock jobbing and other reported evil doings, the country has profited largely by aiding Western railway construction. Altogether Congress voted about \$120,000,000 to all the Western railways.

At times these peculiar relations between our people and those of the neighboring Spanish colony caused much irritation, and promised a disruption of the peaceful relations between the United States and Spain. Finally,

late in 1873, war between the two countries seemed to be inevitable. The steamship *Virginia*, flying the flag of our Republic, suspected of carrying men and supplies to the Cubans, was captured by a Spanish cruiser off the coast of Cuba, taken into port, and many of her passengers and her captain and some of the crew were publicly shot by the local military authorities. This outrage produced intense excitement throughout our country. There was for awhile a hot war-spirit in the land, but wise men in the control of the Governments of Spain and the United States calmly considered the international questions involved, and settled the matter by peaceful diplomacy. There were rights to be acknowledged by both parties. The *Virginia* was surrendered to the United States authorities, and ample reparation for the outrage was offered. While the vessel was on its way to New York, under an escort, she sprung a leak off Cape Fear, and went to the bottom of the sea, at the close of December, 1873.

In the year 1870 the claims of the Government of the United States upon that of Great Britain, for damages inflicted upon the American shipping interest by the depredations of the *Alabama*, and other Anglo-Confederate cruisers, occupied a large share of public attention. Two efforts to effect a treaty had been made, and failed. Much diplomatic correspondence ensued. Finally, late in January, 1871, Sir Edward Thornton, the British minister at Washington, under instructions from his government, proposed, in a letter to Secretary Fish, a Joint High Commission, to be appointed by the two governments respectively, to settle a serious dispute which had arisen concerning the fisheries, and so to establish a permanent friendship between the two nations. Mr. Fish, in reply, proposed that the commission should embrace in its inquiries the matter of the "*Alabama* claims," and other subjects of dispute, so that nothing should remain to disturb the relations of friendship which might be established. The

suggestion was approved by the British minister, and each government proceeded to appoint its commissions.

The commissioners of the United States were instructed to consider (1) the fisheries; (2) the navigation of the St. Lawrence River; (3) reciprocal trade between the United States and the Dominion of Canada; (4) the Northwest water boundary and the Island of San Juan; (5) the claims of the United States against Great Britain for compensation for injuries committed by rebel cruisers, and (6) claims of British subjects against the United States for losses and injuries arising out of acts committed during the recent Civil War.

On the 27th of February (1871) the commission had their first meeting, in Washington city. Lord Tenterden, Secretary of the British Commission, and J. C. Brancroft Davis, Assistant Secretary of State of the United States, were chosen clerks for the Joint High Commission. They held many meetings and the subjects were fully discussed, when a treaty was agreed to, which provided for the settlement, by arbitration, by a mixed commission, of all claims on both sides for injuries by either governments to the citizens of the other, during the Civil War, and for the permanent settlement of all questions in dispute between the two nations. This treaty was signed on the 8th of May, 1871, and was speedily ratified by the two governments.

The conclusion of the treaty was followed by the appointment of arbitrators.

On the 15th of December, 1871, the "Tribunal" assembled at Geneva, in Switzerland, where Count Sclopis was chosen to preside. After two meetings it was adjourned to the middle of June, 1872. A final meeting was held in September, the same year; and on the 14th of that month its decision on the *Alabama* claims was announced. That decision decreed that the Government of Great Britain should pay to the Government of the United States the sum of \$15,500,000 in gold, to be given

to citizens of the latter for losses incurred by the depredations of the *Alabama* and other Anglo-Confederate cruisers. That amount was paid into the Treasury of the United States, a year afterwards, through the agency of the banking firms of Drexel, Morgan & Company and Jay Cooke & Company, who made a contract with the British Government to pay this award on or before the 10th of September, 1873. This transaction was performed in the following manner, without moving a dollar of coin:

The contracting bankers, from time to time, bought bills of exchange, which they deposited in comparatively small amounts, and received coin or gold certificates for such deposits, and purchased United States bonds. Those bonds and coin certificates they finally exchanged with the Secretary of the Treasury for a single certificate for \$15,500,000, which reads as follows: "It is hereby certified that fifteen million five hundred thousand dollars have been deposited with the Treasurer of the United States, payable in gold, at his office, to Drexel, Morgan & Co., Morton, Bliss & Co., and Jay Cooke & Co., or their order." This was endorsed by these parties to pay the amount to the British minister at Washington, and the British Consul-General at New York. The minister and consul endorsed it with an order to pay the amount to Hamilton Fish, Secretary of State; and he, in turn, endorsed it with an order to pay it to W. A. Richardson, Secretary of the Treasury. The money was invested in the new five per cent. bonds of the United States of the funded loan, redeemable after the first day of May, 1881; and a commission was appointed to distribute the award among the just claimants for damages.

The question of boundary on the Pacific coast between our country and the British possessions was referred to the Emperor of Germany, who decided in favor of the claims of the United States, which gave to our territory the island of San Juan, the domain in

dispute. So was settled by the peaceful and just method of arbitration most exciting questions.

In the year 1870 Congress authorized the establishment of a Weather Signal Service, under the control of the War Department, which was designed to collect information and give notice by signals or by telegraph of *any* approaching danger; in time of peace, of dangers to arise from storms in their progress, or other atmospheric disturbances.

By an act of Congress a large tract of the public domain, about forty miles square, lying near the head-waters of the Yellowstone River, on the north-eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains, was set apart for a public park. It is withdrawn from sale, settlement and occupancy, and is dedicated to the "pleasure and enjoyment of the people of the United States."

Early in the year 1872 several political national conventions were held for the purpose of nominating candidates for the Presidency.

Grant and Wilson were elected, the majority of the former being much greater than he received in 1868.

The Senate immediately confirmed President Grant's nominations of constitutional advisers, which were as follows: Hamilton Fish, Secretary of State; William A. Richardson, Secretary of the Treasury; William W. Belknap, Secretary of War; George A. Robeson, Secretary of the Navy; Columbus Delano, Secretary of the Interior; John A. J. Creswell, Postmaster-General, and George H. Williams, Attorney-General. Changes in the *personnel* of the Cabinet afterward took place, and only Mr. Fish retained his position during the eight years of President Grant's administration.

At the beginning of the second term of President Grant's administration the future of our country, in all its aspects, appeared brighter than ever before, since the end of the Civil War. There seemed to be a steady improvement in the tone of public feeling after the irritations caused by the Civil War and the measures adopted for the restora-

tion of the Union. The Government, in its dealings with the leaders in the insurrection, had been exceedingly lenient. Of the thousands of our citizens who consciously and willingly committed "treason against the United States," as defined by Article III, Section 3, Clause 1, of the National Constitution, not one had been punished for that crime; and only Jefferson Davis, the acting head of the Confederacy, had been indicted, and he was released from jail (illegally) by President Johnson's proclamation of amnesty on Christmas Day, 1868, already mentioned, and has never been called to account.

In the spring of 1873 difficulties occurred with the Modoc Indians, who for twenty years had shown a hostile feeling toward the white people. A treaty had been made with them in 1864, which provided for the setting apart for them of seven hundred and sixty-eight thousand acres of land in Southern Oregon. Some of the tribe settled there; others, led by a chief known as "Captain Jack," a conspicuous warrior, preferred to remain where they were, but sullenly consented to go. Trouble with other Indians there caused the Modocs to leave the reservation and begin anew their depredations. It was finally determined to compel them to go to their reservation, when the Indians, under the immediate leadership of Captain Jack, broke out into open war late in 1872, and on the same day eleven citizens were murdered.

In January, 1873, a severe engagement occurred between the National troops and the Modocs, who were strongly intrenched among rocks and vast lava-beds. All attempts to dislodge them were made in vain, and a peace commission was appointed to confer with them. That commission reported, on the 3d of March, that the Modocs had agreed to surrender their arms and go to the reservation. On the following day they were compelled to report that the barbarians had changed their minds, and had rejected all propositions for a removal, and re-

fused to go to the reservation. Then another peace commission was appointed, composed of General Canby, the Rev. Dr. Thomas, and others. They found the Modocs under the influence of Captain Jack, very insolent in their bearing, and showing unmistakable signs of hostile feeling. Finally, on the 11th of April, 1873, while they were engaged in a council with the Indians, General Canby and Dr. Thomas were murdered by them, the savage warriors stealing upon them in a most cowardly manner.

This treachery caused the Government to make the most vigorous war upon the Modocs; and before the first of June they were driven from the lava-beds and were completely subdued. Captain Jack was deserted by most of his followers, and was finally captured, with several of the participants in the murder. They were tried by a court-martial, in August, and six of them were condemned to death. Captain Jack and three of his companions were hung on the 3d of October following, at Fort Klamath, in Oregon.

General George A. Custer had been sent into the region known as the Black Hills, with a military force, to examine and report upon the state of affairs there. It is a region that had been set apart by our Government as a reservation for the powerful and warlike Sioux Indians. They are the most numerous of all the tribes, and more difficult to conquer than any body of barbarians within our domain. It is estimated that if they should rally all their strength, they might muster ten thousand warriors. The Black Hills, which had been assigned to them, occupy portions of the Territories of Dakota and Wyoming. Custer was charmed with the beauty and apparent fertility of that region of country. He reported it to be another Florida in the exuberance of its floral beauty, and also extremely rich in precious metals. The cupidity of frontiersmen was excited, and very soon prospecting miners appeared on the Sioux domain. Instructed by past experience of the bad faith of our Government the Indians

saw in these movements a sure sign of their final dispossession of these fair lands. Their jealousy was aroused. Their suspicions were well-founded; for near the close of 1874, a bill was introduced into Congress which provided for the extinguishment of the Indian title to so much of the Black Hills reservation as lay within the Territory of Dakota.

In the spring of 1875, Mr. Jenny, Government geologist, was sent to the Black Hills country to make a survey of that region. He was escorted by six companies of cavalry and two of infantry. This invasion of their reservation, and the significant presence of surveyors, confirmed the suspicions of the Sioux, of the design of our Government to deprive them of these lands; and all through that year they showed such unmistakable signs of preparations for war to defend their domain, that early in 1876 a strong military force was sent into the region of the Yellowstone River, in Montana Territory and the adjoining region, to watch the movements of the barbarians. Finally, a campaign against them was organized. The general plan was for the military force to make a simultaneous movement, under experienced leaders, in three columns—one from the Department of the Platte, led by General Crooke; one from the Department of Dakota, commanded by General Terry, and a third from the Territory of Montana, led by General Gibbon. The latter was to move with his column down the Valley of the Yellowstone, to prevent the Sioux from escaping northward. General Custer, at the same time, pushing across the country from the Missouri to the Yellowstone to drive the Indians toward General Gibbon, while General Crooke was to scout the Black Hills and drive out any of the hostile Sioux that might be found there. The expedition was under the chief command of General Alfred H. Terry, a brave, judicious and experienced officer. He and his staff accompanied Custer from Fort Abraham Lincoln to the Yellowstone River. On their arrival in the vicinity, at about

the first of June (1876), and communicating with General Gibbon, they found that Indians were in the neighborhood, in large numbers, and well supplied with munitions of war.

The reports of scouts caused a belief that the Indians, with their great movable village, were in the meshes of the net prepared for them near the waters of the Big and Little Horn, Powder and Tongue Rivers (tributaries of the Yellowstone), and Rosebud Creek. The concentrated troops began to feel for themselves. On the 17th of June, Crooke had a sharp fight with a superior force of Sioux, who were thoroughly armed and equipped, and was obliged to retreat. Terry and Gibbon met at the mouth of the Rosebud. Custer was there, at the head of the stronger column, consisting of the whole of the Seventh regiment of cavalry, composed of twelve companies, and he was ordered to make the attack. He and Gibbon marched toward the vicinity of the Big Horn River. Custer arrived first and discovered an immense Indian camp on a plain. He had been directed to await the arrival of Gibbon, to co-operate with him, before making an attack; but inferring that the Indians were moving off, he directed Colonel Reno to attack them at one point with seven companies of the cavalry, while he dashed off with five companies (about three hundred men) to attack at another point. A terrible struggle ensued on the 25th of June, 1876, with a body of Indians, in number five to one of the white men. They were commanded by an educated, bold and skilful chief named "Sitting Bull." Custer and almost his entire command were slain. Two hundred and sixty-one were killed and fifty were wounded.

With General Custer perished two of his brothers, a brother-in-law, and other gallant officers. Many of them had doubtless been murdered after they had been captured, and the bodies horribly mutilated. The body of the general was afterward found and fully identified. It was taken to Fort Abraham Lincoln, in Dakota Territory, where provision was made for its con-

veyance to West Point, on the Hudson River, for interment. It was at first sent to Poughkeepsie, at midsummer, 1877, and deposited in the receiving vault of the Rural Cemetery there, where it remained until the 10th of October following, when it was conveyed to West Point, with a certificate from the post-surgeon of Fort Lincoln, that the burial casket contained "the remains of General George A. Custer, lieutenant-colonel Seventh cavalry, killed at the battle of Big Horn River, June 25, 1876."

The news of the destruction of Custer and his command produced much excitement throughout the country; and the Government immediately ordered a large military force into the region of the Black Hills, for the purpose of utterly crushing the power of the Sioux. Sitting Bull and his followers, anticipating severe chastisement, at length withdrew into the British possessions, where they remained until the summer of 1881.

The Territory of Colorado had to wait for admission into the Union as a State, ten years after first making application for the privilege. That act was consummated on the 4th of July, 1876.

In the last year of Grant's term was held the exhibition at Philadelphia, to celebrate the centennial of American liberty. Philadelphia was selected because the Declaration of Independence was signed there. It was by far the greatest world's fair that had been held up to that time. The city set aside a large portion of Fairmount Park for the purpose, and here were erected six large buildings and hundreds of smaller ones. The expense was borne largely by local enterprise, but the Government loaned \$1,500,000, which was repaid. The total expense was \$8,500,000, part of which was defrayed by the city, and part by the State. The rest was raised by subscription to stock in the enterprise, a portion of which was repaid. The total number of visitors was just under 10,000,000, and the largest on any one day was 274,919. The exposition was open from May 10 to No-

vember 10, except Sundays, a total of 159 days. It was opened with appropriate ceremonies by President Grant and Emperor Dom Pedro, of Brazil.

The exhibits came from all parts of the world, and for the first time in our history our people had an opportunity to compare their own products with those of other nations. The visitors likewise came from all over the world, and the result was most gratifying.

The year 1876 was a "Presidential year" as well as a "Centennial year." The campaign for the prize of the Presidency of the Republic was vigorously begun at the middle of June, when a Republican National Convention assembled (June 16) at Cincinnati, to make nominations for President and Vice-President. There were two prominent candidates before the Convention, James G. Blaine of Maine, and Roscoe Conkling of New York. They were both rejected, and the Convention nominated Rutherford Birchard Hayes, at that time governor of Ohio, for the Presidency, and William A. Wheeler of New York, for the Vice-Presidency. On the 27th of the same month a Democratic National Convention assembled at St. Louis for the same purpose and nominated Samuel J. Tilden (then governor) of New York, for President, and Thomas A. Hendricks of Indiana, for Vice-President. A most exciting canvass ensued, during which the lawlessness that disturbed portions of some of the Southern States was reproduced with increased vehemence, and at times local civil war seemed to be inevitable.

The result of the Presidential election was long in doubt, each party claiming a majority for its candidate. One hundred and eighty-five votes in the electoral college was necessary to the success of a candidate. It was decided, immediately after the election, that Mr. Tilden had one hundred and eighty-four. Democratic Presidential Electors had been chosen in three Northern States—New York, New Jersey and Connecticut; in one of the Western States—Indiana; and in all the Southern States except South Caro-

lina, Florida and Louisiana. The Republican Electors had been chosen in six Northern States—Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island and Vermont; in eleven Western States—California, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, Nevada, Ohio, Oregon and Wisconsin; and in one Southern State—South Carolina—giving Hayes 173 votes.

Then ensued a long, bitter, and sometimes violent contest in South Carolina, Florida and Louisiana, over the official returns of the elections. Each party charged the other with fraud or intended fraud, in making up these returns. There was the wildest excitement in the Gulf region and there was much agitation and anxiety at the North and West.

Thoughtful men foresaw much trouble at the final counting of the votes of the Electoral College by the President of the Senate, according to the provisions of the Constitution, for already the question had arisen as to his absolute power in the matter. Each party persistently claimed the prize of the Presidency, when returning boards in the doubtful States had decided that Mr. Hayes had one hundred and eighty-five electoral vote, and Mr. Tilden one hundred and eighty-four. To prevent serious difficulty, plans were offered. On the 5th of December, Senator Edmunds offered in the Senate an amendment to the Constitution, providing for the counting and declaration of the electoral vote by the Supreme Court of the United States. It was defeated. On the 14th, Proctor Knott (a Democrat), from the Judiciary Committee of the House of Representatives, reported a resolution (as a substitute for one previously offered) that a committee of seven members, to be appointed by the Speaker, to act in conjunction with any similar committee that may be appointed by the Senate, to prepare and report such a measure, either legislative or constitutional, as may, in their judgment, be best calculated to accomplish the end proposed, namely, that the electoral

votes may be counted and the result declared by a tribunal whose authority no one can question, and whose decision all will accept as final. This resolution was adopted without a division. On the 18th, the Senate voted in favor of a committee to act with that appointed by the House.

On the 18th of January, 1877, the joint committee reported. They presented a bill that provided for the meeting of both Houses in the hall of the House of Representatives, on the 1st of February, 1877. Two tellers, to have been previously appointed by each House, to whom should be handed, as they were opened by the President of the Senate, all the certificates and papers purporting to be certificates of electoral votes; these to be opened, presented, and acted upon in the alphabetical order of the States. When there should be a single return from a State, and an objection thereto, with its ground, should be made in writing, and signed by at least one Senator and one Representative, the two Houses should separately decide upon such objection or objections, the vote to be rejected only by the affirmative vote of the two Houses. In the cases of more than one return from a State, all such returns having been read by the tellers, should be, upon objection being made, submitted to the judgment and decision as to which is the true and lawful electoral vote of the State, of a Commission of fifteen, to be composed of five members from each House, to be appointed *viva voce*, January 30, with five Associate Justices of the Supreme Court of the United States, four of these Justices being those of the First, Third, Eighth and Ninth Circuits, who should on January 30, select another of the Associate Justices of the same Court; the entire Commission to be presided over by the Associate Justice longest in commission. Each of the members of the Commission to take an oath to consider the questions submitted, and to give a true judgment thereon agreeably to the Constitution and the laws. The decision of the Commission, or a majority thereof, to

be made in writing, signed by the assenting members, and submitted to Congress; and this decision, having been entered in the journal of each House, must be final, unless overruled by the action of both Houses. This is a brief summary of the bill.

After much debate, this bill was passed by both Houses. It was signed by the President on the 29th of January, and on the 30th the two Houses elected five members each, to serve on the Electoral Commission. On the following day a communication was received by both Houses from the four Associate Justices named in the bill—Clifford, Miller, Field and Strong—announcing that they had chosen as the fifth member of Associate Justices, Joseph P. Bradley.

The joint Electoral Commission assembled in the hall of the House of Representatives on the 1st of February, 1877. The President of the Senate proceeded to open the certificates of the several States, in their alphabetical order. The counting was completed on the 2d of March, when the President of the Senate announced that Rutherford B. Hayes was elected President of the Republic, and William A. Wheeler was elected Vice-President. On Saturday, the 3d day of March, the Forty-fourth Congress finally adjourned.

ADMINISTRATIONS OF HAYES, GARFIELD AND ARTHUR.

The 4th of March—the day prescribed for the inauguration of a new President of the United States—falling on Sunday, Mr. Hayes, to prevent any technical objections that might be raised, privately took the oath of office on that day, and on Monday, the 5th, he was publicly inaugurated.

A special session of the Senate was opened on the day of the public inauguration, and received and confirmed the following cabinet nominations from President Hayes: William M. Evarts of New York, for Secretary of State; John Sherman of Ohio, Secretary of the Treasury; George W. McCreary, of

Iowa, Secretary of War; Richard W. Thompson of Indiana, Secretary of the Navy; Carl Schurz of Missouri, Secretary of the Interior; David M. Key of Tennessee, Postmaster-General, and Charles Devens of Massachusetts, Attorney-General.

The political situation in Louisiana—both parties claiming the right of the respective magistrates chosen by them to govern the State—was made the special subject for discussion in President Hayes' cabinet on the 20th and 21st of March, when it was decided to send a commission to that State to investigate the matter. There were two rival claimants to the governorship of the State, and each party declared that its own chosen officers were legally elected. There was a similar state of affairs in South Carolina, and the President sought diligently for the truth and right. The opponents of the late administration declared their readiness to submit to law and justice, and promised obedience and loyalty in the event of the removal of United States troops, the presence of which they regarded as a menace, and as a restraint upon the free action which every citizen has a right to exercise.

Upon the report of the commission sent to the South, the President resolved to trust the promises of the opposition in both Louisiana and South Carolina, and removed from them the restraints of military force. A salutary result was soon perceived, in an improved tone of public feeling there. This measure, and a reform in the civil service of the Republic, were the most conspicuous features of the public policy of the Administration.

The subject of the Presidency occupied so much of the time and attention of the last session of the Forty-fourth Congress, that at its adjournment there was left a great deal of unfinished important business. There was, toward the last, so much factious opposition to the outgoing and incoming administration, that Congress failed to pass important appropriation bills, and this neglect caused the necessity

for calling an extraordinary session of the Forty-fifth Congress, to provide means for carrying on the Government. It was thought proper, at first, to have a summer session, but prudential reasons forbade it, and on the 5th of May (1877) the President issued a proclamation calling a session in October. When Congress met on the 15th of that month, the President in a message stated the object of their meeting, which was simply to make appropriations to supply money deficiencies; he presented a list of estimates of the amount needed, which aggregated about \$37,000,000. It was expected that the session would be short, and it would have been, had only its legitimate business been attended to; but other subjects engaged the attention of members. The bills were delayed, and the extraordinary session was prolonged until the time for the opening of the regular session, on the 3d of December.

During the summer of 1877, our Government engaged in a war with the Nez Percé (Pierced-Nose) Indians, in Idaho. It was not only a blunder, but crime, on the part of the United States.

At the first regular session of the Forty-fifth Congress, a bill known as the "Bland Silver Bill" was passed, on the 21st of February, 1878. The President returned it to the House of Representatives on February 28th, with his objection; but, on the same day, it was passed by both Houses over his veto, and it became a law. It provided for the coinage of silver dollars of the weight of 412½ grains, and that the rate of coinage should be at least \$2,000,000 a month, and not more than \$4,000,000.

During the summer and fall of 1878 the yellow fever prevailed as a fearful epidemic in the region of the Lower Mississippi River from Memphis to New Orleans. In his annual message to Congress the President called the attention to that body of the necessity for investigating the causes of the epidemic; and on the 5th of December the Senate appointed a committee to settle

the matter, with one from the House of Representatives, and appropriated \$50,000.

On the first of January, 1879, a most important event occurred—it was the resumption of specie payments by the National Government and the Banks, after a suspension of about eighteen years. There was very strong and persistent opposition to the measure on the part of the opponents of the administration, and efforts were made in Congress to defeat it. The authorization of the circulation of silver coin by act of Congress, in January, 1875, prepared the way for resumption. As the time approached for resumption, the opponents became louder prophets of evil. They predicted greater prostration of business, and the impossibility of meeting the enormous demand for coin on the day fixed for resumption, and afterwards. The premium on gold, however, continually diminished, and paper money was at par value in December, 1878. For some weeks private business houses had been paying out gold. Notwithstanding these indications, the Government Sub-Treasuries and the Banks employed an increased clerical force to assist in the labors of the first of January. These clerks were not needed. At the closing hour the Banks had more gold in their vaults than at the opening. Resumption had been imperceptibly effected. Its salutary influence was immediately felt. From the first day of resumption, business began to revive, and the tide of prosperity throughout the whole country has continued to rise higher and higher.

On the Pacific Coast a strong prejudice against the Chinese immigrants had been created, chiefly by other foreign-born persons, because of their alleged monopoly of labor at reduced prices. The matter was brought to the attention of Congress and a bill to restrict Chinese immigration passed both Houses in the winter of 1879. It restricted the number of Chinese passengers in one voyage to fifteen. The President vetoed the bill.

The opposition majority in Congress

resolved to defeat, by means of legislation, the operations of the law authorizing the use of United States troops to keep the peace at the polls where candidates for National offices were to be voted for. The employment of United States Marshals for the same purpose was also opposed. The method resorted to for effecting their purpose caused very exciting debates in Congress. They burdened every appropriation bill with a "rider," or conditions requiring that United States troops should not be allowed at any election in any State, and that the Marshals should not interfere in any elections. So persistent were the opposition members in their methods, that they seemed determined to clog the wheels of Government unless their measures were adopted. The Forty-fifth Congress expired without passing the usual appropriation bills, and this failure in duty caused the necessity for calling a session of the Forty-sixth Congress. They were summoned to meet on March 18, 1879. They did so and passed appropriation bills with obnoxious "riders," which were vetoed by the President. This extraordinary session lasted until July 1st. Failing to pass the vetoed bills over the President's veto, they were shorn of their obnoxious appendages and were passed and approved by the President.

There was a remarkable and comparatively sudden exodus of colored people from the States on the Lower Mississippi in 1879. The reason for the movement was alleged to be a denial of the exercise of civil rights to the negroes, to which they had a constitutional right, and their oppressions in various ways at the hands of the white people. The earlier emigrants and the larger number went to Kansas. Later a considerable number went to Indiana. A committee was appointed by the Senate to investigate the causes of the movement. Their report was not very satisfactory. They declared that the causes were partly political and partly pecuniary.

There was a sudden outbreak of hostility to the white people by the Ute

tribe of Indians in Colorado in the early autumn of 1879. The movement was fierce and desperate, and created great alarm throughout a considerable portion of that State. The barbarians murdered N. C. Meeker, the Indian agent at White River. Major Thornburgh, of the United States Army, was sent with a force to suppress the hostile movement; and in a battle with the Utes at Milk Creek, on September 29th, he and ten of his command were slain. For six days the rest of his force were surrounded by Indians, but being intrenched it held out until succor arrived. The outbreak ended almost as suddenly as it was begun.

The year 1880 was the "Presidential year," and both the great political parties as well as smaller organizations, began early to make preparations for the quadrennial contest for the coveted prize of the Presidency of the Republic. In the months of June the several political parties each held a National Convention to nominate candidates for President and Vice-President of the United States. In this movement the Republican party first appeared. Its chosen representatives assembled in convention at Chicago, Illinois, on June 2d, 1880. They nominated James Abram Garfield, of Ohio, for President, and Chester Allan Arthur for Vice-President of the Republic. After a most exciting canvass, the election, in November, 1880, resulted in the choice of James A. Garfield for President and Chester A. Arthur for Vice-President of the Republic.

On the 29th of February, 1881, President-elect Garfield left his home at Mentor, Ohio, for Washington City. He was accompanied by his family—his aged mother, eighty years old, his wife, and his two sons. He made a short, parting address at the railway-station, which he concluded with the words: "What awaits me I cannot now speak of; but I shall carry to the discharge of the duties that lie before me, to the problems and dangers I may meet, a sense of your confidence and your love, which will always be an-

swered by my gratitude. Neighbors, friends, constituents—farewell!"

Many friends accompanied General Garfield on his journey. He reached Washington on the morning of March 1st, where he was met by a committee and taken to his quarters. His aged mother was conveyed to the President's house, where the room she was to occupy was assigned her by Mrs. Hayes, whose guest she remained until after the inauguration, which event occurred on Friday, March 4, with imposing ceremonies.

President Hayes had issued a proclamation convening the Senate, in special executive session, on the afternoon of the 4th of March, to receive and act upon the nominations of Cabinet ministers which the new President might make. These were sent in the next day, and the nominations were immediately confirmed without debate. They were as follows: For Secretary of State, James G. Blaine, of Maine; for Secretary of the Treasury, William Windom, of Minnesota; for Secretary of War, Robert T. Lincoln, of Illinois, son of President Lincoln; for Secretary of the Navy, William H. Hunt, of Louisiana; for Secretary of the Interior, Samuel J. Kirkwood, of Iowa; for Postmaster-General, Thomas L. James, of New York; for Attorney-General, Wayne McVeagh, of Pennsylvania.

Subsequent nominations sent in to the Senate for confirmation were not so well received. With regard to one of them, the nomination of Judge Robertson to the important office of Collector of Customs at New York, great efforts were made by Senator Conkling, of New York, and the wing of the Republican party which acknowledged him as its leader, to procure its rejection. Garfield, however, regarding himself as the President of the whole nation, not of any party in it, or of any wing of a party, steadily refused to withdraw the obnoxious nomination, and the two Senators from New York State, hopeless of carrying their point, adopted the unprecedented step of resigning their seats in the Senate. Sena-

tors Conkling and Platt at once appealed to the Legislature of New York for re-election. The conflict between the two factions was now transferred to Albany, and the war was carried on with unexampled bitterness. The Vice-President, Mr. Arthur, did not think it unbecoming his high office to mingle personally in the fray and exert his influence for the cause of his friend Conkling. But it was in vain. The Senators who had resigned did not succeed in gaining the re-election which would have returned them to the Senate with the endorsement of their State. The fierce political struggle was just terminating, when every heart was stricken with horror at the intelligence of a terrible tragedy. For the second time the elected head of this free people was struck down by the hand of an assassin. On the 2d of July the President was leaving Washington for a brief holiday, during which he was to pass the anniversary of the Declaration of Independence with Mr. Cyrus W. Field, near New York, and then to visit Williams College, Massachusetts. In the company of Mr. Blaine and other members of his Cabinet, he was taking his ticket at the railroad station, when the assassin Guiteau shot him in the back with a heavy ball from a pistol called an "English Bulldog." The President fell to the ground, and from the nature of the wound death was regarded as imminent. Before the full effect of the deed was realized, Guiteau had been arrested and conveyed to prison, a circumstance fortunate for our national honor by reserving his punishment to the solemn verdict of justice, instead of leaving it to the passions of an infuriated mob. The assassin made no attempt to escape. He had been a lecturer, a lawyer, a persistent seeker of office of any kind, always a swindler. He boasted of his crime. He was a "Stalwart," he said, and believed that the death of Garfield was the only means of saving the Republican party. Meanwhile, the wounded man was removed to the White House, where, in the language of the legal indictment of his murderer, which has a deep pathos

in the words, "he did languish, and languishing did live" till the 19th of September. All that our best surgical skill could do was done, but in vain. The magnificent constitution of the sufferer enabled him to linger, not to recover. While thus slowly dying, his demeanor was throughout manly, with that manliness which touches every heart. "Is the wound mortal?" was the first question he addressed to the surgeons who examined him. "There are," was the straightforward answer, "ninety-nine chances to one against your recovery." "Then," was the brave reply, "I will take that one chance." His chief anxiety was for his wife, and how she would bear the news. A telegram was sent to her at Elberon, summoning her to Washington. She came to be his nurse and strengthener. To all foreboding of a fatal termination she replied, "He has made up his mind to recover, and he will recover." Her courage was as great as his own. When, after the lapse of a few days, it was seen that the illustrious patient had not succumbed to the shock, as was anticipated, hope grew strong in every breast. Every fluctuation of the pulse, every rise or fall of temperature, was watched with interest by every citizen in our wide extended Union. Operations had to be performed to discharge the purulent secretions from the track of the wound; they were borne with constancy, and the temporary relief they gave inspired the sufferer with new confidence, and the people with new hopes. Baseless hopes and unfounded confidence! The assassin's ball, as it was thereafter proved, had injured the spinal column, and recovery was impossible. The President gradually got weaker. The White House, situated near the swamps of the Potomac, was considered unhealthy, and the opinion spread that Garfield's recovery was kept back by malarial influences. He himself seemed to share this opinion, and longed for change of scene. He wished to be removed to Mentor, his quiet, unpretending home in Ohio. But the distance from Washington to his beloved home

was too great for him to bear. As a last resource he was taken to the seacoast at Elberon. Weeping crowds accompanied the litter on which he was carried out from that Executive Mansion to occupy which has been the aspiration of our best and bravest. The line of railroad by which he passed was bordered by sorrowing multitudes who flocked thither for miles, and a sympathizing throng awaited his arrival. But no voice was heard, no cheer was raised as the sad cortege went on. At Elberon he seemed, for a day or two, to gather strength; he felt himself a new man; he was raised up to see the bright ocean heaving in the sunlight and splashing on the shore. But neither change of place, nor refreshing breezes were of avail. He was able to sign one official document. The last words he wrote were scribbled on a bit of paper, *Strangulatus pro republica*. The day before his death he said to his old friend Rockwell, "Old boy, do you think my name will have a place in human history?" "Yes, a grand one; but grander, in human hearts. Old fellow, you must not talk in that way, you have a great work to do." "No," said the dying man, "my work is done."

And then the end. Down to the very last, no murmurs escaped his lips, no regrets at leaving the power and glory of his exalted position, or at the sudden cutting short of his brilliant career. He sank with patient resignation, courageous and uncomplaining, only anxious for her who had borne him, and her who had been the bride of his youth, and the true companion of his manhood.

When Garfield's death was announced, President Arthur at once took the oath of office in his own house at New York, at one o'clock in the morning, and two days afterward repeated it at Washington, in the presence of the Chief-Justice of the Supreme Court and the Cabinet. As usual, the Cabinet tendered their resignations, and were requested to retain office till new appointments could be made.

The year 1881 being the centenary of

the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, that crowning triumph of the Revolutionary War was celebrated at the spot where it took place. Delegates from the French government were present to commemorate a victory in which the arms of France had borne a conspicuous part, and descendants of Rochambeau, La Fayette, De Grasse, and Villiers, as well as representatives of Von Steuben, met on the field where their ancestors had stood side by side a century before. The celebration was concluded by a ceremony which shows in a striking manner the generosity of our people and its gratitude for the sympathy displayed by the English sovereign during Garfield's illness and at his death. The British flag was hoisted and received a royal salute. A striking token of good will between the two branches of the great Anglo-Saxon race; a good will which it is to be hoped will long continue to promote civilization and bless mankind.

On the fourteenth of November, 1881, the trial of Guiteau for the assassination of President Garfield began in the Court of the District of Columbia. Between the murder and the trial he had been detained in jail, under the guard of some regular troops. But so deep and so wide-spread was the indignation of the people at his dastardly deed, that even his guardians did not escape it, and even one of the sentries of the prison attempted to shoot the wretched criminal through the bars of his cell. During the progress of the trial, another attempt to kill Guiteau was made. The assailant, mounted on a fleet horse, rode up to the cellular van in which the prisoner was being carried from the court-house to the jail, and fired his pistol through one of the windows of the vehicle. In both cases Guiteau received no injury. Judge Cox presided over the trial, the prosecution was conducted by the District Attorney, Corkhill, assisted by Mr. Davidge and Judge Porter, the latter an eminent advocate of New York, who had been conspicuous in the Beecher trial. The evidence of the murder was soon given.

The facts were indisputable. The question as to the sanity of the prisoner remain to be discussed. On January 25, 1882, the jury returned a verdict of guilty amid volleys of blasphemy from the prisoner. An appeal was made, and a new trial demanded. But the demand was rejected, and on the 3d of February Charles J. Guiteau was sentenced to be hung on the 30th of June.

The first change in the Cabinet took place in November, 1881, when Mr. Windom resigned the Treasury, and was succeeded by Judge Folger, of New York. On the 1st of January, 1882, Mr. James resigned the Postmastership, and was succeeded by Mr. Howe. Mr. Blaine, the Secretary of State, had, during the illness of Garfield, inaugurated a line of foreign policy which seems calculated to involve the country in sundry complications. He had sent instructions to our Ministers in Peru and Chili which looked to an intervention on the part of the United States to prevent Chili exercising her legitimate rights of conquest. He had proposed in a highly undiplomatic tone the abrogation of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty with Great Britain respecting the guarantees of an interoceanic canal between the Atlantic and Pacific, and proposed to the Central American Republics the meeting of a convention of delegates from each State to be held at Washington, and to deliberate on their common and mutual interests. The full extent of these negotiations was not known to the public till Mr. Blaine finally left the Cabinet. The new Secretary of State, Mr. Frelinghuysen, of New Jersey, modified the instructions given by Mr. Blaine to Messrs. Trescott and Blaine, our special envoys to Peru and Chili, and to the moderation of the views held by him and the President, ample evidence is borne by their subsequent acts.

One of the most important state trials ever held in this country, whether we regard the high position of the parties incriminated, or the failure of justice which public opinion considers to have taken place, was that of the "Star Routes." The "Star Routes" of our Postal Service may be described as lines upon which mail cannot be car-

ried by railroad or steamboat lines. There were one hundred and thirty-four such routes, on which the compensation was raised from \$143,169 to \$622,808. This was accomplished by increasing the number of trips, shortening their time and obtaining therefor by political influence additional compensation. On twenty-six of the routes the pay was raised from \$65,216 to \$530,319. Chief among those accused of being implicated in this attempt to defraud the Government were Senator S. W. Dorsey and Second Assistant Postmaster-General Thomas J. Brady. Against them and others in minor positions, the formal indictment was brought on the 4th of March, 1882, the proceedings having commenced in November of the year previous. The first jury disagreed, and charges of receiving bribes were brought against several of its members. The Marshal of the District of Columbia, the Washington Postmaster, and others, were accused of aiding the prisoners and were dismissed. A new trial was begun in December of the same year, ending, however, in their acquittal.

A question concerning Peru and Chili arose from the war going on between those countries. Peru, being overrun by the Chilians, was in a state of anarchy, and two so-called governments co-existed. In June, according to instructions from Secretary Blaine, the Provisional Government of Calderon, one of the pretenders, was formally recognized in place of that of Pierola. General Hurlburt in July sent a communication to General Lynch, commander of the Chilian forces, saying that the United States disapproved of war which had in view territorial aggrandizement, and that the proposal of Chili to take possession of Peruvian territory, unless Peru demonstrated its inability to pay in any other way the indemnity imposed upon it by Chili, was disapproved by this Government. This letter produced violent excitement. The Peruvians expected aid from the United States, and were correspondingly elated and grateful. The Chilians, on the other hand, denounced Minister Hurlburt with exceeding the

bounds both of his own authority and that of the United States. In response to the inquiries of the Chilian government General Kilpatrick, the minister at Lima, wrote a letter contradicting the statements of his Peruvian colleague. Upon this affair Secretary Blaine, for his own vindication, published his instructions to the ministers and various other documents. In these he desires the ministers, if it lies in their power, to persuade Chili to forego the claim upon Peruvian territory. He wrote: "There is nothing more difficult or more dangerous than forced transfer of territory, carrying with it an indignant and hostile population, and nothing but a necessity, proved before the world, can justify it. It is not a case in which the power desiring the territory can be accepted as a safe or impartial judge." As a consequence of General Hurlburt's letter, President Calderon was imprisoned by order of General Lynch.

Affairs having become so involved, Mr. William H. Trescot was appointed special envoy to Peru and Chili. Mr. Blaine was succeeded by Mr. Frelinghuysen. He immediately telegraphed to Mr. Trescot that the questions arising from the suppression of the Calderon government could be attended to in Washington, and he proceeded to say: "Were the United States to assume an attitude of dictation toward the South American republics even for the purpose of preventing war, the greatest of all evils, or to enforce its mandate, and to this end tax our people for the exclusive benefit of foreign nations." He nevertheless urged moderation on Chili's part, declaring that otherwise this government would not give any aid in negotiating with Peru. Mr. Partridge was afterward sent as minister to Peru. He called an informal meeting of the representatives of various European powers to endeavor to agree upon a solution of the difficulty. In this action he was regarded as having exceeded his authority, and was recalled.

The question of the coinage of silver again became a prominent subject, not merely in political, but in financial and

commercial circles. By November 1st there were in the Treasury about 66,000,000 silver dollars. The danger arose that this would inflate the paper circulation of the country and reduce its currency to the standard of the silver dollar, and that gold would be withdrawn from circulation. To avoid this emergency France and the United States invited various important nations to send delegates to a convention which should determine a fixed ratio between gold and silver. The convention was held, but Great Britain and Germany refused to be bound by any promises and the convention was adjourned.

Early in the session two important measures were brought before the attention of Congress. The peculiar practices of the Mormons in the Territory of Utah—practices which, openly avowed as they are, conflict with our normal civilization—were felt to be in discord with the ordinary moral principles of society. The other was a bill relating to Chinese immigration.

As regards the Mormon Question, a law passed in 1862 prohibiting the Mormon system of "sealing," or polygamous marriage, was so negligently enforced that only three convictions had occurred. To carry out the intention of the bill, and render prosecution more easy of proof, the so-called Edwards Law was passed. By this, in addition to a re-enactment of a fine and imprisonment, those who contravene the law are prohibited from voting or holding office. Under this act all the elective officers in Utah were dismissed from office, and a commission of five appointed by the President to discharge their duties. The result of the position taken by the Federal Government has been the conviction of many of the leading bishops, elders and other dignitaries of the Mormon Church for violation of the law.

The Chinese Question is one of much greater extent than any mere local issue. It is this: whether this republic, which has always loudly proclaimed itself as the refuge for the poor and oppressed of all nationalities, shall, in violation of its own constitu-

tional principles, and of the treaties which it has, as a sovereign power, entered into with a foreign nation, refuse the ordinary protection for life and property to a certain class of immigrants who, in frugality, industry and patience, afford a striking contrast to the majority of those who advocate their exclusion. By the articles of the Burlingame treaty concluded between the United States and China in 1868, the Chinese were accorded the same privileges in regard to settling in this country and becoming naturalized as are enjoyed by those of any other nationality. In 1880, after violent agitation against their admission, formented particularly by the working classes of the Pacific States, the treaty was modified. By the new terms this Government could regulate or suspend, but not prohibit, the immigration of the laboring classes, and in response to many demands for a stricter law, a bill was passed in 1882 prohibiting the importation of Chinese laborers for a term of ten years.

In this year full reports were heard of the ill-fated band who had sailed under De Long in the *Jeannette*.

In domestic as well as in foreign affairs Mr. Arthur's presidency was uneventful. If the saying is true that the country is happiest which has no history, his term must be included in the list of happy presidencies.

The Republican Convention met on June 3d in the Exposition Building at Chicago. President Arthur had hoped to be nominated, but his record in New York politics had alienated the Civil Service Reformers, and his course of action since his accession to his high office had rendered hostile the adherents of Mr. Blaine. On the fourth ballot Mr. J. G. Blaine, of Maine, was nominated as the Republican candidate for the presidency, and on the 15th of July he addressed to the committee deputed to inform him of his nomination a formal letter of acceptance. The Democratic Convention met in the same city on the 8th of July. Grover Cleveland was nominated as the candidate of the party. Mr. Cleveland was known to

have discharged admirably his duties as Mayor of Buffalo in opposing municipal corruption. He was elected Governor of New York as a reform Governor, hostile to Federal interference in State affairs, and had discharged his duties in a manner which gained the approval of the Civil Service Reformers as well as of the Democrats. His election had been a rebuke of the management of the Republican party as careless of its traditions and of the purpose of a great body of Republicans, and was a declaration of political independence.

CLEVELAND'S ADMINISTRATION.

On the 4th of March Grover Cleveland was inaugurated at Washington with the usual ceremonies, and nominated as his Cabinet: Thomas F. Bayard, Secretary of State; Daniel Manning, Secretary of the Treasury; William C. Whitney, Secretary of the Navy; William C. Endicott, Secretary of War; L. Q. C. Lamar, Secretary of the Interior; Augustus H. Garland, Attorney-General, and William F. Vilas, Postmaster-General.

The minor appointments to minor positions under the Federal Government began at once to trouble the new administration. There was the strong party of old Democrats, hungry for the spoils of victory, who clamored for the immediate dismissal of old Republican office-holders. Great was their wrath when, in consequence of a strong petition from most of the business houses of New York, Mr. Pearson was retained as postmaster at our commercial metropolis. There were the anti-Blaine Republicans, who had voted for Cleveland in the interest of Civil Service reform, and whom both the old parties designated as "Mugwumps." This strange word, first popularized at this epoch, is an old Narragansett Indian word, used in Elliott's translation of the Bible for chief or king, and was now applied to the Civil Service reformers and Independent Republicans to insinuate that they thought themselves better than other men, and bound

to no allegiance. The "Mugwumps" in their turn were indignant at the nomination of Mr. Eugene Higgins as appointment clerk in the Treasury. He was described as an unscrupulous political worker and with a bad record, and his installation in such a position as that named was justly regarded as indicating a swerving on the part of the President from his earlier professions of a desire to reform the Civil Service—a desire proclaimed in his announcement that no removals from office would be made except in the case of heads of departments, for "cause" or for "offensive partisanship."

It is advisable to go into these details respecting the formation of the administration of President Cleveland, as in them lie the causes why he did not succeed in procuring a re-election to a second term. It is the old story—a man cannot serve two masters.

The first business that attracted the attention of the President was the civil war raging in the Central American States, to the detriment of American interests in that quarter. A naval force was dispatched to the scene of disturbance, and a force of marines landed to protect life and property at Aspinwall, which had been occupied and burned by one of the factions. At home the failing health of General Grant continued to evoke universal sympathy. The last act of President Arthur had been to sign the bills restoring him to his rank in the army, but he was not destined to hold the honor long. He died on the 23d of July, and on the 8th of August his remains were brought from Mount MacGregor, where the death took place, to New York. The body lay in state for two days in the City Hall, and was then transported to a spot on the banks of the Hudson in Riverside Park, which the city had assigned for that purpose.

On the 28th of November the Vice-President, Mr. Hendricks, died suddenly. By his decease before the meeting of Congress, the succession to the presidency, in case of the death or disability of the President, was left undetermined. By the Constitution, the

Congress has the power to provide for the case of the removal or death of either the President or Vice-President, but the Congress had not yet organized. When it did meet on the 7th of December the Senate elected Senator Sherman its President *pro tempore*, the acting Vice-President thus being the leader of the opposition to the President's policy. So great was the anxiety felt at this unexpected state of affairs that, by the advice of his Cabinet, the President declined to attend the funeral of his colleague. Various proposals had been made at various times with a view of settling beyond peril the question of succession. In the early part of 1883 a bill for this purpose was brought in, and as the death of Mr. Hendricks again called the attention of the nation to this important matter, the President in his message recommended the subject to the careful consideration of Congress. In accordance with this recommendation, and in view of the alarming results that might ensue if a question of such grave importance was not at once settled by the Legislature, a bill prepared by Senator Hoar was introduced and finally passed. By its provisions, in case of the death of both the President and Vice-President, the functions of the office are to be discharged till an election can be held under the articles of the Constitution, by the Cabinet officers, in the order of the seniority of creation of their offices.

In addition to the suggestion for immediate action on the settlement of the presidential succession, President Cleveland, in his first address to the First Session of the Forty-ninth Congress, while presenting to the Senate the reports of his various Secretaries of the Executive Departments, endorsed and enforced the views expressed by these officers. His recommendations were strictly on the line of the ideas he had promulgated in his inaugural address and in his letter of acceptance of the presidential nomination. As a preliminary he pointed out what he deemed the constitutional functions of the Executive and the Legislature, and the line that was to be drawn between them.

"The Constitution," he wrote, "which requires those chosen to legislate for the people to annually meet in the discharge of their solemn trusts, requires the President to give to Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall deem necessary." And he proceeded: "The Executive may recommend such measures as he may deem expedient; the responsibility for legislative action rests with those who are selected by the people to make their laws." Having thus defined his own position with respect to the Houses of Congress, he recommended the abolition of all custom duties on imported works of art, a measure involving only a trivial sacrifice of revenue. The next recommendation was of far wider import, for it was no less than one for the revision of the tariff.

The President during the whole of his term of office was placed in a most embarrassing position, for, in addition to open enemies in Congress, he had to contend against the lukewarm support or scarcely disguised hostility of the rank and file of the Democratic party. To them the principle of Civil Service reform, to which he had pledged himself, was in every respect distasteful. It was denounced as un-American, stigmatized as Chinese and British, and declared to be the first step towards creating a bureaucracy, the members of which, neither hoping for promotion nor fearing dismissal from the people, or the chosen representatives of the people, or the Chief of the State, would form an arrogant, exclusive, almost independent body, able, if not entirely to thwart, at least to embarrass the execution of the popular will. The principle of rotation in office was proclaimed as the true American and Democratic principle, and it was urged that, as all offices since the war, during all the successive Republican administrations, had been filled by Republicans, so now, when a President elected by the Democratic party occupied the White House and administered public affairs through a Democratic

Cabinet, all offices ought to be filled by Democrats.

"Turn the rascals out!" had been for years a rallying cry for the Democracy, and its fulfillment was demanded. Nor would the public service, it was argued, suffer by such changes in its personnel, for the offices in which they took place were such as any intelligent citizen could discharge satisfactorily; while in the present state of affairs a substitution of Democrats for Republican officials was especially desirable, in order to give the party that had been so long excluded from every share in the administration some training in the official routine of public office. Above all, the managers of the Democratic party insisted on the doctrine that "to the victor belongs the spoils," and that the only way by which the party could be held together, or those who had worked zealously for its triumphs be rewarded, was the bestowal of office, if only as an acknowledgment of services rendered and an encouragement of services to come. Great as was the pressure thus put on the President, and often as he was compelled to give way to it, on the whole he endeavored to the best of his ability to carry out the pledges on which he had appealed to the people when a candidate for their suffrages.

But whatever political troubles environed President Cleveland from open foes or doubtful friends, he had found time to win a wife; and although the matrimonial alliances of our Presidents have no such political bearings as those of European potentates, the event deserves mention, for thereafter the President acquired a temporary and sentimental popularity.

The foreign relations of the United States were as uneventful as usual. A new extradition treaty between Great Britain and this country had been for some time under discussion. It was considerably wider in its terms than the existing one, but one of its clauses, stipulating for the surrender of persons who should have inflicted injury by the use of dynamite, gave rise to great opposition.

On the Mexican frontier the usual

condition of affairs continued. Lawless men from both countries crossed and recrossed the frontier, but without any acts involving any international question. In the month of August, 1886, however, a new and curious controversy arose between the Mexican and American Governments. At the frontier town of El Paso, in Texas, there lived an American citizen, Cutting by name, who published a newspaper there. For some reason or other he moved from the American side to the Mexican side of the boundary line, and there, in pursuit of his calling, he began the publication of a paper in the Spanish language. With true American journalistic enterprise, he set out to make his paper popular by making it sensational, and he made it sensational by violent attacks on the local government. He was arrested for libel, but released on signing a retraction. On his release he at once crossed into Texas, had the original libel republished there in Spanish in an American newspaper, and taking copies of this paper with him, returned to Mexico and sold them. He was rearrested, tried, convicted and sentenced to imprisonment. The American Government took up the position that the offense was committed within the jurisdiction of the United States and could not be punished in Mexico, and demanded peremptorily his immediate release. The affair was temporarily adjusted by the Mexican Government making a proposition, through the United States Minister at Mexico, that the American Government should send a special envoy to confer with the Mexican Attorney-General as to the proper interpretation of the law in the case. The proposition was acted upon, and Mr. Arthur G. Sedgwick was deputed to act in behalf of the United States, but without diplomatic powers or authority to effect a settlement. The upshot of the affair was that the Mexican court released Mr. Cutting on a technical plea.

Congress passed in 1887 the Interstate Commerce Act. The bill itself was designed to stop the encroachment

of railway corporations on individual rights, and to check discrimination in the rates of freight to the advantage of certain localities or certain favored customers. It was not without protracted debate that the measure became law, and it was not without considerable misgivings and foreboding of evil that the railroad companies commenced to comply with its provisions. The ultimate or permanent success of even this measure is still quite doubtful. An investigation held in April, 1889, elicited the fact that, while the great railway managers had found difficulties in the way of carrying out its provisions, none of them asked for its repeal. On the contrary, they urged the necessity of the Government strictly enforcing its provisions on all railroads in the United States or that pass through the United States. This last demand was aimed especially at the Canadian railroads, of which the Grand Trunk Railroad has a branch running through the State of Maine, and derives the bulk of its business from the Western cities of Chicago, Detroit and St. Paul. The law, too, it was urged, placed American transcontinental lines at a disadvantage compared with the great Canadian Pacific Railroad that runs to Vancouver's Island from the Atlantic seaboard. Built by the aid of lavish subsidies from the Canadian Government, this transcontinental line, running wholly outside the United States, is necessarily exempt from the action of its laws. It is not, moreover, hampered by any such restrictions as those embodied in the Interstate Commerce Bill respecting rates of freight or the relation of the rates of freight to the number of miles over which the freight is carried. It can, therefore, carry some classes of goods between England and San Francisco cheaper than our lines can. The contention, therefore, of the railway managers is that, as far as the connections of this company extend to the United States, so far ought the Interstate Commerce Bill to be enforced.

In April, 1887, an important change took place in the Cabinet, the Secre-

tary of the Treasury, Mr. Daniel Manning, being compelled by ill-health to resign his high position. To his exertions the election of Grover Cleveland as Governor was mainly due, and his action in the National Convention of 1884, as head of the New York delegation, had equally great influence on his nomination to the presidency. His knowledge of banking and finance well qualified him for the office to which he was assigned, and his discharge of his duties was satisfactory to the financial and commercial community. After his resignation he paid a visit to Europe, but the improvement of his health did not continue on his return hence, and in December he died, in his native city of Albany.

In 1885 death removed from the scenes of active life General George B. McClellan, the commander of all the armies of the United States after the retirement of General Scott, and the organizer of the Army of the Potomac. His career in the war and his candidacy for the presidency in 1864 have already been told in these pages. In that year he had resigned his commission in the army and took up his residence in New York and New Jersey, devoting himself to various engineering enterprises, to travel and to literary pursuits. He was a clear writer, a good speaker, and profoundly versed in the arts of strategy and tactics. Too much caution and a strange suspicion that the Government did not wish him to succeed, led to all his failures and disappointments. But, to quote the words of Prof. Henry Coppee, "his personal magnetism had no parallel in military history, except in that of the first Napoleon. He was literally the idol of his officers and men, and they would obey him when all other control failed."

Samuel Jones Tilden was born in Lebanon, New York, in the year 1814, the descendant of a New England family that settled in America in 1634. His father was a friend of Martin Van Buren, and politics was the very atmosphere of the household in which the boy grew up. Both before and after his entrance at Yale, in 1832, as

well as before and after his admission to the bar, his tongue and pen were devoted to discussing the political questions of the day. As a lawyer he made his fame and laid the foundation of his fortune by his argument in the suit between the Pennsylvania Coal Company and the Delaware and Hudson Canal Company, and from 1855 all the great Northwestern railroads were his clients. In 1848 he had joined in the Free Soil schism which that question provoked in the Democratic party, but throughout the war maintained that the struggle against the Confederate States could be carried on to a successful termination without having recourse to unconstitutional methods. In 1868 Tilden was the leader of the Democrats in New York State, and, to his honor, he opposed with the utmost determination the corrupt ring which, under the command of William M. Tweed, plundered the city of New York. He became the directing spirit which carried out the impeachment of Judges Barnard and Cordoza, and gave his energy and time and labor to prosecute the suits by the city against the "Tweed Ring" and its agents and allies. He became Governor of New York in 1874, and his first message denounced the extravagance and dishonesty that had prevailed in the management of the canals of the State. In 1876 he was nominated the Democratic candidate for the presidency, and although the Electoral Commission gave the high office to Mr. R. B. Hayes, yet Tilden had the popular vote, the numbers being 4,284,265 for Tilden, against 4,033,295 for Hayes. Henceforth he was the first of Democratic leaders, but his state of health compelled him to decline the nomination in 1880 and again in 1884. He died, after a protracted period of feebleness, in 1886. His last important act in public affairs was a letter addressed to Speaker Carlisle, urging the necessity of liberal appropriations for the purpose of making our coasts safe against the attacks of any naval power. In public life Mr. Tilden was more a politician than a statesman. Astute,

secretive, and dextrous, he was an excellent organizer of his party and held them together in defeat, although he could not lead them to victory in his lifetime. To his advice Mr. Cleveland owed the presence in his Cabinet of its strongest man, Mr. Manning, the Secretary of the Treasury. Mr. Tilden will be long known from the contested result of his candidacy for the presidency; he will be perhaps better known for the munificent legacies he left to the city of New York to establish a free public library in the large and stately house in Gramercy Park, which he also bequeathed to the city.

Another unsuccessful candidate for the honor of the presidency died in 1886, General Winfield Scott Hancock, who was defeated by J. A. Garfield in 1880. Whatever slanders political malignity had scattered abroad during General Hancock's candidacy had been forgotten before his death, and his deeds during the war were alone remembered. "Hancock," wrote General Grant, "stands the most conspicuous figure of all the general officers who did not exercise a separate command. His name was never mentioned as having committed in battle a blunder for which he was responsible. He was a man of very conspicuous personal appearance; tall, well-formed, he presented an appearance that would attract the attention of an army as he passed. His genial disposition gained him friends, and his presence, with his command, in the thickest of the fight, won him the confidence of the troops that served under him." General Sherman spoke equally highly of their fellow-soldier. "Sit down," he said to a raker-up of scandals during the heat of the presidential campaign, "sit down and write the best thing that can be put in language about General Hancock as an officer and a gentleman, and I will sign it."

To these may be added the name of one who had been nominated by the Republican party as their candidate for the vice-presidency in 1884, General Logan, of Illinois, equally distinguished as a soldier and as a statesman.

John Alexander Logan was born in Illinois in 1826, and died at the capital of the Union in 1886. He served as a soldier in the Mexican war, and after it was over embraced the profession of the law, where his pleasing address and forcible oratory soon rendered him popular. After some experience in State politics, he was elected to Congress in 1858 as a Douglas Democrat, and in 1860 advocated the election of that statesman. He declared, however, on the first suspicion that the election of Abraham Lincoln would be the cause of strife, that he would "shoulder his musket to have him inaugurated." He fought as a volunteer at the first battle of Bull Run, and afterwards organized the Thirty-first Illinois Regiment, of which he became Colonel. He greatly distinguished himself in the field, and refused to interrupt or abandon his military service by accepting a nomination to Congress. "I have entered the field to die, if need be," he said, "and never expect to return till the object of the war is obtained." He was conspicuous for his skill and gallantry at Vicksburg, Resaca, Atlanta, and marched with Sherman "to the sea." When active service was over he resigned his commission and was returned to Congress, where he was one of the managers of the impeachment of President Johnson. In 1871 he was elected to the Senate, and in 1884 was nominated as the Republican candidate for the vice-presidency on the same ticket as Mr. Blaine. The most fitting tribute to his memory is expressed in the words of Mr. Blaine: "General Logan was a man of immense force in a legislative body. His will was unbending; his courage, both moral and physical, was of the highest order. I never knew a more fearless man. He did not quail before public opinion when he had once made up his mind, any more than he did before the guns of the enemy when he headed a charge. In debate he was effective and aggressive. While there have been more illustrious leaders in the United States and more illustrious leaders in legislative halls, there has,

I think, been no man in this country who has combined the two careers in so eminent a degree as General Logan." General Logan was a man of striking personal appearance; swarthy, as if he had Indian blood in his veins, with jet-black hair, which he wore long, a heavy black moustache, dark eyes, and regular features, he looked the type of the Western American.

Before passing on to narrate the foreign relations which the Secretary of State had to conduct, and which brought upon him much obloquy, it will not be out of place to take some notice of the alarming earthquake—or rather series of earthquakes—at Charleston, the first and most alarming shock being on August 31, 1886. This was felt, indeed, throughout the whole region of the United States between the Mississippi River and the Atlantic Ocean. It was especially severe in North and South Carolina, reaching its climax in the city of Charleston, where it caused terrible destruction. The city was wrecked, and the streets encumbered with masses of fallen bricks and tangled telegraph and telephone wires, making it almost impossible to pass from one part of the city to another. Most of the people, with their families, passed the night in the streets, which were for some days crowded with men and women who were afraid to re-enter their houses. Fires broke out in different parts of the city immediately after the earthquake, adding to the general alarm. An examination of the ruins showed that the damage was greater than was supposed. The loss was variously estimated at from ten to fifteen millions of dollars. Though few persons were killed, the suffering of the people was very great. The city was for a time virtually cut off from the outer world. The rails had been twisted like threads, so that no trains could approach or leave the place. There was some prospect of famine, the principal hope of relief from such disaster lying on the seaward side. Famine was, however, happily averted by strenuous effort and by contributions in

kind from adjoining cities. These were, later, supplemented by considerable money donations from all parts of the world.

In the fall of 1886 a ceremony took place which rose to the dignity of a national event—that was the solemn unveiling of the statue, "Liberty Enlightening the World," which now stands in New York Harbor.

One of the most important and delicate questions that occupied the attention of the Secretary of State during President Cleveland's administration was the so-called "Fisheries Question," or the controversy between Canada and Great Britain on one hand and the United States on the other, respecting the rights of American fishermen who plied their trade in the waters adjacent to the Dominion of Canada. It is a question that is coeval with the republic, and which on several occasions has produced considerable coolness between the two Governments.

The Democratic Convention had been summoned to meet in St. Louis on June 5, 1888. The convention nominated as the party's candidate for the ensuing presidential term the then holder of that exalted office, and the Republican Convention, that met at Chicago on June 19th, nominated as its candidate General Benjamin Harrison, of Indiana, who had already served his country as a soldier in the field, as Congressman in the House of Representatives and as a Senator. The veteran Allen G. Thurman, of Ohio, was nominated by the Democrats as Vice-President on the same ticket with Grover Cleveland as President, while the Republicans named Levi P. Morton, of New York, as the Vice-President on their ticket. The campaign was not disgraced by the personalities which had formed so revolting a feature in the campaign of 1884, but was conducted on broad, economic issues. The result was that Benjamin Harrison and Levi P. Morton were elected President and Vice-President of the United States by 233 electoral votes, against 168 cast for Cleveland and Thurman.

HARRISON'S ADMINISTRATION AND CLEVELAND'S SECOND TERM.

Benjamin Harrison, the twenty-third President of the United States, was the grandson of General William Henry Harrison, "Old Tippecanoe," who was President in 1841, and great-grandson of Benjamin Harrison, of Virginia, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. He was born at North Bend, Indiana, in 1833, and practiced law in that city till he entered the army, in which he rose to the rank of Brigadier-General. When the war was over he resumed his profession, and was one of the Senators of his State in Congress from 1880 to 1886. The Vice-President, Levi P. Morton, an eminent banker of New York, had been Minister to France during Mr. Arthur's administration. The new Executive was duly inaugurated at Washington with the accustomed ceremonies, and nominated as his Cabinet: James G. Blaine, of Maine, Secretary of State; William Windom, of Minnesota, Secretary of the Treasury; R. Proctor, of Vermont, Secretary of War; John Wanamaker, of Pennsylvania, Postmaster-General; William H. Miller, of Indiana, Attorney-General; B. F. Tracy, of New York, Secretary of the Navy; J. W. Noble, of Missouri, Secretary of the Interior, and Jeremiah Rusk, of Indiana, Secretary of Agriculture. This last was a new office, of which Mr. Rusk was the first incumbent.

The first great public function in which President Harrison was called to appear was the Centennial celebration of the inauguration of Washington at New York. The centenary of the Declaration of Independence was marked by the Great Exhibition in Philadelphia in 1876, under President Grant; the termination of the War of Independence by the surrender of the British forces at Yorktown was commemorated in 1881 under President Arthur. President Cleveland witnessed the long processions and elaborate ceremonies with which Philadelphia in 1887

kept the centenary of the signing of the Constitution, and now this series of national celebrations was completed by due observance of the hundredth anniversary of the day on which the first President had been inaugurated.

The tariff act known as "the McKinley Bill" was prepared and put through the House. It provided for an average of higher duties than had ever been laid, but also greatly increased the free list. In the Senate the bill met opposition, where a bill to put congressional and presidential elections under Federal control had aroused the Southern Democrats, who professed to see in it a return of negro domination. By skillful maneuvering Senator Quay made an arrangement by which the election law was dropped and the tariff bill passed.

At this session was passed a new bill in relation to silver. The Bland-Allison Act had failed to bring the price of silver up to \$1.29 per ounce, where the ratio of 16 to 1 would be maintained. The Senate passed a bill restoring the free coinage of silver, but the House was opposed to it. A new compromise was passed, known as "the Sherman Act." By it the Secretary of the Treasury was to buy in the open market monthly not exceeding 4,500,000 ounces of silver at the market price and issue certificates on it at once, before coining, at the rate of one dollar for each 371 1/2 grains, which should be legal tender. This it was supposed would absorb all the surplus silver and restore the former price. In the meantime a new international conference on the subject was called in the hope of the general remonetization of silver. This act failed to restore the price, and the international conference failed as before.

Foreign matters had a serious aspect during this administration. In New Orleans an Italian society, known as "the Mafia," had long secured immunity from punishment for crime by means of political influence. A number of particularly foul murders had been committed and no one convicted. On March 14, 1891, a mob gathered, broke

open the jail, and shot down seven Italian prisoners who were awaiting trial, and hanged two others. Italy at once demanded an apology and reparation. Mr. Blaine replied that it was a matter for Louisiana and not the United States to settle. The relations between the two countries became strained. The Italian Minister went home, and ours left Rome. Eventually the matter was healed over, \$25,000 recompense given the families of the murdered men, and friendly relations were restored.

A more serious incident was that with Chili. In 1891, during one of the periodical revolutions, the existing government was overthrown. Our minister granted asylum to the deposed President, and he escaped the fate common in South American revolutions. This greatly angered the successful revolutionists, who soon took an opportunity to wreck their vengeance. The revolutionary steamer *Itata* was seized by the United States, but sailed away suddenly. She was followed, and surrendered at Iquique. This made matters worse. The United States cruiser *Baltimore* lay in Valparaiso Harbor and some of her crew (October 16th) went ashore as usual. A mob collected and drove the blue jackets back to the boats, killing two and wounding several. This was an insult not to be brooked. President Harrison demanded an immediate apology and indemnity. Chili at first was not disposed to agree to this, whereupon rapid preparations were made for war. At this Chili backed down and made the reparation demanded, though not with very good grace. The sum paid was \$75,000. The body of the killed boatswain's mate, Charles W. Riffin, was disinterred, brought home to Philadelphia and lay in state in Independence Hall, after which it was buried with military honors, followed by the greatest procession ever given a sailor in this country.

In 1889 a revolution in Brazil had driven the aged Dom Pedro from his throne, and a Republic was set up. In 1892 the navy revolted against the

Government, and established a partial blockade of several ports, whereupon one of our war vessels in the bay of Rio Janeiro escorted some American vessels to the dock. The rebel navy did not open fire, as was threatened. Soon after the rebellion was crushed. Another important dispute with Great Britain was sent to arbitration. Claiming the sole right to catch seals in Bering Sea, this Government had seized some Canadian vessels engaged in shooting seals on the high seas. Our contention was that we owned the seals. The matter was decided against us, and we paid damages. In 1897 seal catching was temporarily stopped to prevent extermination of the herd.

One event of 1889 that will long live in history was the destruction of Johnstown, Pennsylvania, May 31st, by the bursting of a dam which kept back a large lake. The water from this lake was precipitated upon the town and almost totally destroyed it, while several thousand persons lost their lives. Appeals for aid were answered from all over the world, and the city was soon rebuilt and more prosperous than ever.

In 1888 was passed the new Chinese Exclusion Act with provisions much more strict than those of former days. The construction of the Pacific railway was the primary cause of the heavy wave of Chinese immigration, which soon became threatening because the cheap labor drove out the Caucasian who could not compete. By the act of 1888 Chinese laborers were absolutely prohibited entering, while all Chinese in the country were required to register.

In 1890 the administration met the usual mid-term reverse at the elections. This was partly due to party apathy and partly to dissatisfaction with the new tariff bill. The House of Representatives was controlled by the Democrats, and Charles F. Crisp, of Georgia, was elected Speaker, which prevented any partisan legislation in the latter part of Harrison's term. Just before this term expired a revolution in the Hawaiian Islands deposed Queen Liliuokalani and set up a Republic. President Harrison negotiated a treaty of annexa-

tion, which was referred to the Senate, but not acted on.

The year 1892, judged by official statistics, was the most prosperous up to that time. Our foreign trade was large, domestic trade showed the largest totals in the history of clearing house statistics, and manufacturing was on an unprecedented scale. Under such circumstances the Republican party expected an easy victory. Unfortunately it was not harmonious, and there was much grumbling over the tariff bill on the ground that it unduly raised the price of necessities. The Republican Convention met in Minneapolis June 7, 1892, with President Harrison the only avowed candidate with a large following. President Harrison had incurred the personal enmity of many of the party leaders, who took up Mr. Blaine once more as a candidate, in spite of his refusal to be a candidate. On the eve of the convention Mr. Blaine resigned as Secretary of State for reasons not given, but variously stated to be because he wanted the nomination, and that personal differences had arisen between him and the President over matters relating to his own department. He was succeeded by John W. Foster, of Indiana. The control of the convention depended on the delegates from Southern States, from most of which there were contesting delegations. The contests were generally settled in favor of the administration delegates. General Harrison was renominated and Whitelaw Reid, editor of the New York Tribune, was given second honors.

The Democratic Convention met at Chicago June 20, 1892, and, in spite of all opposition, Mr. Cleveland was renominated on a platform that was not quite so unequivocally against protection as in 1888. Adlai E. Stevenson, of Illinois, got second honor. William F. Harrity, of Pennsylvania, an able politician of experience, was chairman of the Campaign Committee. The Republican chairman was Senator Thomas H. Carter, of Montana. The contest was spirited, but the Democrats won easily, carrying many States hitherto

strongly Republican. The electoral vote stood: Cleveland, 277; Harrison, 145; Weaver, 22. The popular vote was: Cleveland (D.), 5,556,562; Harrison (R.), 5,162,874; Weaver (Pop.), 1,055,424; Bidwell (Pro.), 264,066; Wing (Labor), 22,613.

It will be seen that in four years the Democratic vote increased but slightly, while the Republicans lost considerably. The vote for Weaver, Populist, was about seven times that cast for Streeter in 1888. The People's (Populist) party was the outgrowth of the discontent of the farming element South and West with financial legislation. Into it were fused members of all parties. It demanded the free coinage of silver, government loans on crops, and many other ideas new to our politics. Its strength was largely in the West, in the prairie States. During Harrison's administration the States of Idaho, Montana, Wyoming, Washington, North Dakota and South Dakota had been admitted, all but one of which were counted as safely Republican, yet the Populists, singly or by fusion with the Democrats, carried nearly every one of them. For the first time since 1860 a third party had carried a State. During Harrison's administration ex-President Hayes, James G. Blaine, General B. F. Butler and Justice Lamar died. General Sheridan and General Sherman died previously.

Mr. Cleveland now came into power with both Houses of Congress Democratic, though the Senate was so divided on financial issues that it could not well be tabulated. Mr. Cleveland chose for his Cabinet: Secretary of State, Walter Q. Gresham, of Indiana; Secretary of the Treasury, John G. Carlisle, of Kentucky; Secretary of War, Daniel Lamont, of New York; Secretary of the Navy, Hilary A. Herbert, of Alabama; Secretary of the Interior, Hoke Smith, of Georgia; Secretary of Agriculture, J. Sterling Morton, of Nebraska; Postmaster-General, Wilson Bissell, of New York; Attorney-General, Richard Olney, of Massachusetts.

Mr. Gresham died in office, and was

succeeded by Mr. Olney, whose place was taken by Judson Harmon, of Ohio. Mr. Bissell resigned in 1895 and was succeeded by William L. Wilson, of West Virginia. The President's first act was to withdraw the Hawaiian treaty, thus defeating annexation. His effort to place Liliuokalani on the throne failed, and the Republic lasted until 1898, when annexation was effected.

One of the President's first duties was to formally open the World's Fair at Chicago. This exhibition in Jackson Park, instituted at a cost of over \$20,000,000, was the most complete the world has ever seen. Enormous buildings were erected, but instead of being purely useful, the most elaborate pains were taken with their architecture. The exterior was a white composition known as staff, being principally plaster of paris, which looked like marble. The decorations mural and of statuary, were elaborate and artistic. The grounds were laid out with lagoons, fountains and all that landscape gardening could produce. The whole was a veritable fairyland. At night the buildings and lagoons were lighted up by electricity and the artistic effect was magnificent. The exhibits were complete and comprehensive, showing all that the world could offer in the arts and sciences. Foreigners were amazed at the display, and Americans no less. In the seventeen years which had passed since the Centennial, progress had been wonderful. Whereas in 1876 much of our showing was poorly contrasted with foreign exhibits, now the comparisons were almost all in our favor. The exhibition was open six months, during which time there were 27,500,000 visitors, and total receipts of over \$33,000,000. The Government gave directly \$1,500,000, besides its own exhibit, and further aid by allowing the coinage of special designs of subsidiary coin, which commanded a premium. One interesting feature of the fair was the Parliament of Religions, at which were gathered representatives of nearly every known religious creed in the whole world.

In June of this year another financial panic came. The Democratic party was pledged to a revision of the tariff law, which made manufacturers cautious, and capitalists contracted loans. Silver had continued to fall in price in spite of Government purchases, and Great Britain suddenly suspended the coinage of the silver rupee at the Indian mints. This caused a further drop in the price of silver, and the panic in this country assumed large proportions. Manufacturers, banks and business men failed, and there was financial stringency throughout the country. In this emergency President Cleveland convoked Congress in extra session to repeal that portion of the Sherman Act providing for purchases of silver. The House elected Charles F. Crisp, of Georgia, Speaker, and under the rules soon passed the repeal bill. In the Senate it met determined opposition. The Senators from the South and far West were generally in favor of free silver, and they used every method to prevent a vote. Senators spoke many hours at a stretch against repeal, often lasting all night. The fight was in vain, for by a combination of "sound money" Republicans and Democrats the repeal bill passed in October. Nothing else of importance was passed at this session, but at the regular session the Committee on Ways and Means of the House (Wm. L. Wilson, chairman) introduced a measure greatly reducing tariff duties. This bill was passed, and went to the Senate, where the Democrats were more conservative. In order to gratify local interests the rates were largely increased, until they were about half way between the McKinley law and the Wilson bill. It was the intention to make concessions for lower rates in the Conference Committee of the two Houses, but the Republicans, led by Senator Quay, who spoke for days and threatened to speak for many weeks, checked this design, and the House accepted the Senate measure. The President refused to sign it, and it became a law after ten days.

The fall elections were a perfect landslide for the Republicans, following

what has become almost a fixed rule that the administration loses in the middle of its term. Mr. Reed was once more elected Speaker, and Nelson Dingley, of Maine, became Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee; Mr. McKinley being now Governor of Ohio.

There was no partisan legislation during the rest of Cleveland's administration. In both of his terms Mr. Cleveland largely extended the scope of the civil service law, for which he was criticised by Republicans, who claimed that he first allowed departments to be filled with Democrats. Much dissatisfaction also was caused by the fact that the bonded indebtedness was increased \$262,000,000. Part of this was to pay expenses, but most of it to maintain gold payments during the silver excitement. One contract made by the administration with a Wall street syndicate for bonds at a low price which the latter sold at a high price, caused great dissatisfaction. It was necessary, however, to get gold as the "endless chain" worked rapidly.

The important foreign episode of the administration was a controversy with Great Britain over the Venezuela boundary. For many years there had been a dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela as to the boundary line between the latter and British Guiana. The matter came to a crisis when gold was found in the disputed country. Great Britain finally laid down a line as its minimum boundary and brought matters to a crisis by offering to arbitrate only over a small amount of territory in dispute. In this situation, invoking the Monroe Doctrine, Mr. Cleveland sent an ultimatum, with an implied threat of war, that the whole subject must be arbitrated. The ultimatum admitted of no compromise, and was so brusque that war seemed inevitable if Great Britain refused, as seemed likely, to accede to our demands. She did accede, and the matter was satisfactorily settled. The message to Congress, sent December 17, 1895, caused a small panic in financial

circles, as it was believed war was inevitable.

The political situation in 1896 was very much mixed. The Populists had increased in power, and they finally brought over the mass of Democrats to their favorite platform of free silver. Contrary to custom, the Republican (minority) party held its Convention first, at St. Louis, June 16, 1896. The platform declared for the gold standard and against the free coinage of silver without the co-operation of foreign Nations. Again there were many contesting delegations, most of which were settled in favor of those supporting William McKinley, of Ohio, the leading candidate. Other aspirants were Speaker Reed and Senator Quay. Mr. McKinley was nominated on the first ballot. Garret A. Hobart, of New Jersey, got second honor. A pathetic feature of the Convention was the withdrawal from the Convention of a number of men who had been connected with the party since its birth. Senator Teller and his friends could not accept the gold standard platform, and withdrew—a situation somewhat similar to that at Charleston in 1860, though the desertion was not so formidable.

The Democratic Convention met at Chicago July 7th, and first adopted a free silver platform, relegating the tariff question to the rear for the time being, whereupon many Eastern delegates withdrew. Richard P. Bland, of Missouri, was the leading candidate. On the fifth ballot the Convention nominated William J. Bryan, of Nebraska, a brilliant young orator and former Congressman, who had hardly been mentioned for the place, but who carried the Convention by storm in a brilliant speech for free silver. Arthur Sewall, of Maine, a prominent ship-builder and capitalist, got second honors.

The Populist party met at St. Louis and adopted a platform including free silver, Government loans to farmers on crops, payment of National bonds in silver, etc. They nominated Mr. Bryan, but refused to indorse Sewall,

who was president of a National bank. In his place they named Thomas Watson, of Georgia. This complicated the electoral tickets somewhat, but in most States where the Populists had any strength fusion was made so as to insure Mr. Watson a part of the vote. This year the Prohibition party split and had two candidates in the field.

The Democrats who refused to accept the Chicago platform met at Indianapolis and nominated General John M. Palmer, of Illinois, for President, and General Simon B. Buckner, of Kentucky, for Vice-President, on a gold standard platform. While these made an earnest canvass, it was more for educational purposes than to get votes, as most of their followers finally voted for McKinley. Mr. Bryan made the most remarkable campaigning tour on record, speaking in nearly every State and attracting large crowds of people. His youth, earnestness, brilliancy, and courage made him many friends, though it has seldom occurred that a tour of this kind has been successful.

In November, Mr. McKinley was elected over Mr. Bryan by a large majority of the popular and electoral votes, and receiving a majority over all opponents. The electoral vote stood: McKinley, 271; Bryan, 176. For Vice-President the vote was: Hobart, 271; Sewall, 146; Watson, 30. The popular vote stood: McKinley, 7,107,822; Bryan, 6,288,866; Bryan and Watson, 222,207; Palmer, 133,800; all others, 178,178. There were elected 207 Republicans, 121 Democrats, 26 Populists and 3 Silverites to Congress.

ADMINISTRATIONS OF McKINLEY AND ROOSEVELT.

President McKinley chose for his Cabinet: John Sherman, of Ohio, Secretary of State; Lyman J. Gage, of Illinois, Secretary of the Treasury; Russell A. Alger, of Michigan, Secretary of War; John D. Long, of Massachusetts, Secretary of the Navy; Cornelius N. Bliss, of New York, Secretary of the Interior; James Wilson, of

Iowa, Secretary of Agriculture; Joseph McKenna, of California, Attorney-General; James A. Gary, of Maryland, Postmaster-General.

Mr. Sherman soon retired, and was succeeded by William R. Day, of Ohio, who was succeeded by John Hay, of Ohio, then Ambassador to Great Britain. Mr. McKenna was soon promoted to the Supreme Court, and was succeeded by John W. Griggs, of New Jersey. Mr. Gary also retired and was succeeded by Charles Emory Smith, of Pennsylvania. The fourth change was the resignation of Mr. Bliss, who was succeeded by Ethan Allen Hitchcock, of Missouri, then Ambassador to Russia.

Esteeming the tariff question of prime necessity, an extra session of Congress was called. Mr. Dingley prepared a new high protective measure, which passed both houses after many amendments, and became a law in 1897. Manufactories once more became busy, and a sudden rise in the price of wheat, due to an unusual foreign demand, were factors in restoring prosperity to the country. In the year 1898 the foreign trade balance was more than \$600,000,000 in our favor, the domestic trade was the greatest ever known, while railroads and other enterprises largely increased their earnings. There has been a great increase in our exports since that date, especially in the line of manufactured goods, with which the United States competes very favorably for the foreign trade.

This is the end of the second stage of our history. The first ended when we were acknowledged as an independent Nation by Great Britain. From 1783 to 1898 is 115 years of progress, not always constant, of struggling for prosperity, of local and national growth and of development entirely within the confines of our national limits. In January, 1898, there was little doubt that we should continue developing our internal resources, cultivating the good will of all Nations, but interesting ourselves little except commercially beyond the limits of our then existing territory. In five months the whole

situation changed and introduced into our politics new ideas, new duties, and new responsibilities. The expansion of our territory was as sudden as it was unexpected, and forms one of the most interesting periods in our history, which must be given with some detail.

As we have seen, the people of this country have always taken a lively interest in Cuban affairs. The island lies in a position that strategically commands the Gulf of Mexico, and is esteemed one of the richest parts of the globe in material resources. Proslavery men looked on it with longing eyes, as indeed did pretty much everyone until the slavery issue became prominent in politics. Even Abraham Lincoln in his debates with Douglas would not pledge himself to vote against annexation, although it was slave soil at the time. The futile efforts of the ill-starred Lopez to get up an insurrection have been noted. A genuine effort was made at revolution in 1868, just after Isabella had been driven from the throne of Spain. For two years the revolutionists gained steadily, their operations being confined mainly in the eastern end of the island. They raised a large army, but could not procure adequate supplies of guns and ammunition. In spite of domestic troubles, Spain made great efforts to put down the revolt, sending across the seas or enlisting in Cuba over 235,000 soldiers, of whom 85,000 were killed or died of disease, principally the latter. The Cubans were aided largely by their countrymen in the United States, which led to much friction between this country and Spain, although we had been the first to recognize the new order of things in the Peninsula.

In February of 1895 the standard of revolt was raised once more and the movement became more formidable than ever. A temporary government was organized and military operations were conducted under Generals Garcia, Gomez, and the brothers Maceo.

A considerable army was raised and the war was carried into every department of the island. In the first two years there was hard fighting and the

insurgents were generally successful, as they possessed a fair amount of ammunition and supplies. This country was faithful to its treaty obligations; and when filibustering was suppressed, supplies were cut off, the Cuban army stopped fighting in the open field, and began harassing the enemy, burning sugar plantations of Spaniards, and doing as much damage with as little open fighting as was possible. Spain raised altogether some 300,000 men for the war, of whom nearly one-third died of disease or were killed. Finding that active operations in the field were impossible, Captain-General Weyler began his policy of reconcentration, forcing all inhabitants to leave the country and concentrate in the towns and cities, where, being without money or work, they died by thousands. Weyler was guilty of the grossest cruelties, in defiance of military law; and his conduct and a natural desire to see the Cubans succeed aroused sentiment in this country in favor of the revolutionists. In spite of popular sympathy, our Government, at great expense, continued to stop filibustering, and two captains of vessels were imprisoned. The administration constantly tried to alleviate the unnecessary sufferings of the war and to bring about peace on the island. Finally Spain granted an autonomous government, which was little more than a farce, and at the last moment declared an armistice, but events had moved so rapidly that no compromise was possible.

The administration resolved to maintain friendly relations, and, as an earnest of its good intentions, sent the battleship *Maine* (Captain Charles D. Sigsbee) in January, 1898, to the harbor of Havana, on a friendly visit; and the Spanish cruiser *Vizcaya* was ordered to New York. Neither ship was received with enthusiasm, and the relations were formal and strained. On February 8th a sensation was created by the publication of a letter purporting to have been written by the Spanish Minister at Washington, Dupuy de Lome, to Senor Canalejas, a Spanish official at Havana. In this letter Mc-

Kinley was called a "a low politician," "weak and catering to the rabble," "who desires to leave a door open to me and to stand well with jingoes of his party." Canalejas was urged to agitate commercial relations even if "only for effect," and to send a man to Washington "to make a propaganda among the Senators." When de Lome saw the letter was published, he immediately cabled his resignation to Madrid, and, when questioned by the State Department, blandly acknowledged it and left the country. This caused a storm of excitement. Just how the Cuban Junta secured the letter is not known, but it proved a powerful weapon. The excitement had not cooled down on the morning of February 16, 1898, when the country was driven wild with excitement on learning that at 9.40 o'clock the evening previous, the battleship *Maine* had been blown up in Havana harbor, killing or mortally wounding two officers and 264 men. Captain Sigsbee, who was on board, was saved, and immediately wired the Secretary of the Navy, asking suspension of judgment pending an investigation. Spain desired to join in the investigation, but, being refused, started one of her own in a desultory manner.

A Court of Inquiry, composed of Captain William T. Sampson, of the *Iowa*; Lieutenant-Commander Adolph Marix, Captain French E. Chadwick, and Lieutenant-Commander W. P. Potter, began an investigation, February 26th, which lasted twenty-three days. All of the survivors were closely questioned; the *Maine* was examined by divers, mainly under the direction of Ensign Powelson, whose energy and intelligence largely contributed to the solution of the problem. The Court unanimously reported that the *Maine* had been blown up by a mine situated outside the vessel and that no fault could be imputed to the officers of the ship. The testimony showed that the *Maine* lay at an unusual anchorage, and that, on the night of the explosion, the vessel had veered round to a position she had not occupied before. The

Spanish Court reported that the explosion was from the inside of the *Maine*, but no one ever considered it seriously, as the investigation was not worthy the name. Their divers were down but a short time and found nothing of importance, while Ensign Powelson showed conclusively that the keel of the *Maine* had been forced up above the water line, and everything showed that a mine had been exploded beneath the vessel.

The President sent the report to Congress, saying he had referred it to Spain, expecting that nation to do what was right in the premises. Little attention was paid to this, however, as the people of the country were unanimous for war. The situation in Cuba was such that it was no longer safe for Americans. Under orders of the President Consul-General Fitzhugh Lee left Havana April 9, 1898, by which time nearly all our consuls and citizens were already gone. On April 7th an unusual event took place at the White House. The diplomatic representatives of Great Britain, Germany, Austro-Hungary, France, Italy and Russia, headed by Sir Julian Pauncefote, handed the President a joint note expressing the hope that further negotiations would bring about peace. The President replied that he was anxious for peace, and concluded: "The Government of the United States appreciates the humanitarian and disinterested character of the communication now made on behalf of the powers therein named, and for its part is confident that equal appreciation will be shown for its own earnest and unselfish endeavors to fulfill a duty to humanity by ending a situation, the indefinite prolongation of which has become insufferable." This is generally conceded to be one of the most convincing answers to an appeal for peace ever made. It satisfied the powers, not one of which thereafter made a protest.

On April 10, 1898, the new Spanish Minister presented a long note to the State Department, making the best of the situation from a Spanish point of view, calling attention to autonomy, the

armistice, the repeal of the Weyler decree of reconcentration, and the fact that General Blanco, who had succeeded Weyler, was trying to do the best he could for humanity. It was too late. War was already certain, and the only question was as to the preliminaries. There were many members in both Houses who wanted to recognize the existing Cuban Republic, but the President opposed this, and, after a long struggle, the administration won.

On April 19th both Houses passed resolutions declaring the people of Cuba free and independent, demanding that Spain relinquish authority in Cuba, directing the President to use all the land and naval forces to carry the resolutions into effect, and specifically stating that this country entered upon the task not for its own aggrandizement, but expecting to leave the control and government of the island to its people as soon as it was pacified. The President signed these resolutions April 20th and sent, by cable, a copy to our Minister to Spain, General Woodford, who was to wait two days for a reply. The Spanish Government already had received a copy from its Minister, Polo y Bernabe, in Washington, and, without waiting to hear from Woodford, sent him his passports. He turned over the legation to the British Embassy and left on the same day for home. Thus Spain actually began the war. On the 22d the President issued an order blockading nearly all the ports of Cuba. At daylight on the 23d the fleet which had collected at Key West, under command of Acting Rear-Admiral Sampson, sailed for Cuba, and the blockade was begun. On the way the Spanish merchant steamer Buena Ventura was captured as a prize by the gunboat Nashville. Others soon followed. On the 25th, in reply to a message of the President, Congress passed a resolution declaring that war existed with Spain and had existed since the 21st of April, the day Spain broke off diplomatic relations.

On the 23d the President issued a call for 125,000 volunteers for the war. While the negotiations were in prog-

ress the country had not been idle. On February 1st this country was in no condition for war; there were few reserve supplies of ammunition and equipment, and an immediate declaration of war would have found the country badly handicapped. The administration needed some time and much money to prepare for war. The President asked for \$50,000,000 to be used at his discretion for the public good. The House, on the 8th, the Senate on the 9th of March, unanimously voted the money. In the House there were impassioned patriotic speeches in which ex-Confederate officers vied with ex-Federals in pledging support to the Government. Preparations had already begun to get the navy ready. With the sum now at hand contracts were made for all sorts of army and naval supplies. Warships, and merchant ships for transports were purchased. Supplies of ammunition were sent to Commodore Dewey commanding the Asiatic naval station, and every nerve was strained to get the nation ready for war. When it came we were partly prepared, but it took many weeks to get the volunteer army in anything like condition for service. Laws were passed allowing the regular army to be recruited up to 62,000 men, providing for volunteer cavalry and engineer regiments, and ten so-called immune regiments, in addition to the volunteers apportioned to the various States. The Army and Navy Departments worked night and day to equip the ships and soldiers. The navy was already in good condition and needed only accessions, while the army had almost to be created.

The strategy of war was comparatively simple, as it turned out, though it gave great anxiety at the start. There was a panic of fear along the Atlantic coast over the dread of bombardment of the chief cities. The fast cruiser Columbia and other vessels were kept scouting off the extreme northeastern coast, as far as the Grand Bank, to sight a hostile fleet. A so-called flying squadron, under Commodore Winfield Scott Schley, was col-

lected at Hampton Roads, ready to start in any direction. His flagship was the armored cruiser Brooklyn, and his principal ships were the Texas, sister ship to the Maine, Captain Philip, and the first-class battleship Massachusetts, Captain Higginson.

When Admiral Sampson sailed from Key West, he had the Iowa, Captain Robley D. Evans; the armored cruiser New York (flag-ship), Captain Chadwick; the Indiana, Puritan, Cincinnati, New Orleans, Detroit, Marblehead, Mayflower, and a large number of smaller vessels, with which he blockaded the coast.

The only other American fleet was at Hongkong, under Commodore George Dewey, consisting of the flag-ship Olympia (Captain Gridley), the Raleigh, Baltimore, and Boston, all second-class cruisers; the gun-boats Concord and Petrel; the revenue cutter McCulough, and two transports.

On the Pacific coast there was the cruiser Charleston and the monitors Monadnock and Monterey. The first-class battleship Oregon, Captain Clark, was ordered from San Francisco to the East. Clark left March 19th and reached Rio de Janeiro April 30th. Here he was joined by the gun-boat Marietta and the new cruiser purchased from Brazil, the Buffalo. The Oregon reached Key West, May 26th, after a voyage of 12,000 miles, without a moment's stop for repairs—the most remarkable voyage on record, due to the strength of the ship and the untiring efforts of the officers and crew. The last part of the voyage was hazardous, as it was expected that the Spanish fleet might be overhauled at any time. Captain Clark had determined to fight them all, if he met them, and subsequent events indicated that he would have won.

The Spanish had a large number of small gunboats and a few cruisers in Cuban waters, but their principal navy consisted of two fleets, one near home, in the Atlantic, and the other in the Philippines. The home fleet consisted of some of the finest vessels afloat. The Maria Teresa, Almirante

Oquendo, Vizcaya, and Christobal Colon were considered of the finest type of armored cruisers afloat, and there was much anxiety in this country because of them. These, with the torpedo boat destroyers Pluton, Terror, and Furor, formed a fleet which was sent to American waters, April 29th, from the Cape de Verde Islands. The Spanish reserve fleet, under Admiral Camara, at Cadiz, consisted of the battleship Carlos V, the cruisers Pelayo and Numancia, and several converted cruisers. These latter once started for Manila and got through the Suez Canal, but returned to Cadiz after the destruction of Cervera's fleet. The fleet in Manila Bay consisted of the Reina Christina, Castilla, Don Antonio de Ulloa, Isla de Luzon, Isla de Cuba, General Lezo, Marquis del Duero, El Cano, Velasco, Isla de Mindanao, and some small torpedo boats and gunboats.

As to the army, Spain had something like 200,000 trained soldiers in the West Indies and about 12,000 in the Philippines. There were some 80,000 reserves in the Peninsula called out, all armed and equipped. The United States had a little army of 25,000 men to begin with, which was in three months recruited up to 57,000 regulars and over 220,000 volunteers, very few of whom saw much service in the field of battle.

The first order was to blockade Cuba, for it was not intended to begin active military operations until the rainy season was over. The next order was for Dewey to destroy the Spanish fleet in the Philippines. The next object was to destroy Admiral Cervera's fleet, which had sailed from the Cape de Verde Islands, no one knew just where. It was believed Cervera would make Cuba his objective point, which was confirmed by learning of his presence off the Venezuelan coast, May 14th. That he would strike for Cienfuegos, on the south side of Cuba, seemed most probable, as it was the nearest port and in direct railway communication with Havana. Then began the chase for this fleet, to be hereafter de-

scribed. As it turned out, there was little occasion for grand strategy during the war. There was one series of American successes on land and sea, which soon brought peace.

Before beginning the narrative of the war, some space must be given to the great preparations on land and sea. A large number of yachts and merchant vessels were bought or leased and fitted up as gunboats and cruisers, though little protective armor was put on them. The four great American Line steamers *Paris*, *New York*, *St. Louis*, and *St. Paul* were leased, fitted up as cruisers, but used largely as scouts and transports, the *St. Paul* being in command of Captain Sigsbee. The *Paris* was rechristened the *Yale* and the *New York* the *Harvard*. Many vessels were hastily fitted out as transports, supply and hospital ships, together with many colliers to supply the fleet. Since for the past fifteen years Congress had been liberal with the navy, it was much easier to fit out than the army. The naval force was increased by enlistment of men, the naval reserves of States, and by promoting officers and taking many from civil life.

The financial question was easily settled. Stamp taxes were laid, intended to raise over \$100,000,000 per year, and a popular loan of \$200,000,000 in 3 per cent. bonds was offered. Most of this was taken in subscriptions of \$500 or less, and no subscription of \$5,000 or over was accepted. The loan was subscribed to many times over. The bonds sold at a premium long before they were ready for delivery.

The army problem was much more difficult to solve. Ever since the Civil War the army had been neglected, in spite of recommendations and protests from army officers and the War Department. Although the officers were as fine a body as ever wore uniform, Congress never looked upon them and the men as much more than ornamental police. Only in the last few years had the army been equipped with the modern small caliber rifle with smokeless powder cartridges, and there was not

large enough reserve supply at first for the regular recruits. The fear of militarism being ever before the eyes of Congress, some little good was done by a small appropriation to the various States for the National Guard. Nominally these organizations aggregated about 125,000 officers and men. In one State only was the organization perfected and used to duty. Pennsylvania's National Guard was a division of three brigades, each of five regiments of infantry, one troop of cavalry, and one light battery. These were accustomed to brigade evolutions, and some experience in division drill. In other Eastern States, and in some central States, the organization was more or less perfected, but in none of them was it adequate for war. The material was there, but it lacked the necessary training. The National Guard was equipped with Springfield rifles and black powder cartridges. Most of the tentage and material was drawn from the regular army, but the equipment was seldom complete.

When the call for 125,000 men was issued, the States furnished their quota usually by using the National Guard regiments as a basis. Those who desired to stay at home did so, and their places were quickly taken by volunteers. The new law provided for a regiment of three battalions of four companies, each company consisting of 106 men. Few militia regiments were so large, and they were consolidated or filled up to meet the requirements. It took but a short time for the States to raise the quotas in local camps. As they were filled the regiments were sent to camps of instruction in the South, so as to become acclimated, except a few which were detailed to guard powder mills and public property. The principal camps were near Washington (Camp Alger), at Chickamauga (Camp Thomas), at Jacksonville (Camp Cuba Libre), and at Fernandina. Later there was a large camp near Middletown, Pa., and many smaller ones in Alabama and Georgia. On May 25th, the President issued a call for 75,000 more men, making 200,-

ooo volunteers, in addition to the volunteer cavalry, engineers, and immunes, not apportioned among the States. The First Volunteer Cavalry was commanded by Surgeon Leonard Wood, of the army, who had been advanced to the rank of Colonel, with Theodore Roosevelt as Lieutenant-Colonel, who left the post of Assistant Secretary of the Navy to assume the position. This regiment was nicknamed the "Rough Riders" because it was largely recruited from cowboys and frontiersmen in Texas, Arizona, and adjacent territory. It also included a large number of college athletes and clubmen from New York. Nearly every race and religion was represented, as well as nearly every State. It gained more celebrity than any other volunteer organization.

This army was organized into eight corps, only seven of which were completed. Each corps was supposed to consist of two divisions, each of three brigades of three regiments—nominally about 24,000 officers and men. To officer this army, whose maximum reached about 275,000 men, all of the Brigadier-Generals in the regular army, as well as some other officers, were made Major-Generals of Volunteers. In addition men of experience in the Civil War were given the same rank. These included James H. Wilson, of Delaware; J. Warren Keifer, of Ohio; Fitzhugh Lee, of Virginia; M. C. Butler, of South Carolina, and Joseph Wheeler, of Alabama; the last three mentioned being ex-Confederate officers. Nearly all the Colonels in the regular army, as well as some Lieutenant-Colonels, were made Brigadier-Generals, together with a considerable number from civil life who had served in the Civil War. Among the latter were Charles King, better known as a novelist; Frederick D. Grant, H. V. N. Boyton, Adelbert Ames, hero of Fort Fisher; J. P. S. Gobin, Grand Commander of the Grand Army of the Republic, and W. C. Oates, the latter an ex-Confederate officer.

Under the law the Governors of the States appointed all line officers below

the rank of Brigadier-General. To provide for this army an immense increase in the staff was necessary. This was done as far as possible by taking young officers from the regular army and promoting them, though many preferred to remain in the line. In addition, a large number of civilians were appointed, many of whom had never had the slightest military training. Some of these learned their duties easily and became efficient. Others never did become efficient, and much trouble resulted. During the war it developed that the weakest spot of the army was the staff, not only in the higher grades, but in the regiments. Everyone was anxious to fight, but the vexatious detail of quartermaster and subsistence departments, and sanitary arrangements was irksome and it took some time to properly learn the duties; a certain amount of "red tape" being necessary or else there would be hopeless confusion. It took a long time for green officers to learn these rules, and in the meantime the men were often on short rations, while few companies at first had good cooks. In spite of all drawbacks, by July 1st there was an army of over 200,000 men, nearly all equipped, and all eager to fight. In spite of all complaints made by persons ignorant of war, this army was assembled and equipped in a shorter space of time than had ever been known before.

We now turn to the narrative of the war, which is brief and glorious. The first conflict took place April 27th, at Matanzas, Cuba. The blockading vessels New York, Puritan and Cincinnati bombarded the forts of the town and dismounted some batteries without loss on either side. On the same day Commodore Dewey, having received laconic orders to destroy the Spanish fleet, sailed away from Mirs Bay, near Hongkong, expecting to find the enemy at Subig Bay, north of Manila. In this he was disappointed; so he kept on, and entered the Bay of Manila, sailing past the batteries on Corregidor Island at the entrance, about daybreak, May 1, 1898. It was a hazardous enterprise,

for he knew there were mines in the harbor, heavy fortifications on land, and he had a large fleet to fight. It is true that he was somewhat superior to the enemy in tonnage and the number and weight of his guns, but neither his vessels nor those of the enemy had any protective armor. The Spanish fleet lay under the guns of Cavite Fort, where there was an arsenal. Unless Dewey could win a decisive battle, he might be in a perilous position, as he was 7,000 miles from the nearest American port. Undaunted by these dangers, Dewey sailed in, and by good chance escaped the mines as they exploded. Sighting the enemy on the south of the bay by the fort, he placed his vessels in line and sailed around in a circle, so as to give each of his vessels a chance to fire and sail on out of range. The line bore steadily down until in just the right position, when Dewey, who remained on the bridge, remarked quietly to the Olympia's captain: "You may fire, Gridley, when you are ready." An instant later, at 5.06, May 1st, the fight began, and lasted nearly two hours and a half. The enemy replied vigorously, but their aim was poor. On the other hand, the American gunners fired slowly and with more accuracy, but not so well as Dewey had expected, and he was greatly troubled as he feared the ammunition had run short owing to a misunderstanding of the signals. When several of the enemy's vessels were aflame, and all more or less damaged, Dewey ordered the whole fleet out of range to consider the situation, for he was much disturbed. Contrary to general belief for months afterward, the respite was not for breakfast, but to find out how much damage his fleet had sustained, and how much ammunition remained. Anxiously Dewey awaited the reports from each of his vessels as to the losses. When one vessel after another reported not a man lost or seriously hurt nor any damage done, the Commodore breathed a sigh of relief. After breakfast and a little rest, the line was formed again, and the attack was renewed upon the Span-

iards, who were already rejoicing over a victory, supposing that they had driven the American vessels off by their fire. The Americans were now confident, their aim went true, and in a short time every Spanish vessel was sunk, and some 600 Spanish sailors were killed, including one captain. The Spaniards fought to the last, but their marksmanship was very bad. Once more Dewey called for a list of casualties, and again found that not a single life had been lost, and only eight wounded, while the damage to the entire fleet did not amount to \$5,000. This, the most remarkable naval battle in history up to that time, caused a sensation all over the world. The administration breathed a sigh of relief. Dewey was made Rear-Admiral and given a sword by Congress, and in 1899 was given the full rank of Admiral.

Cavite Fort surrendered on demand of Dewey, who notified Manila that he would shell the town if the batteries opened on him. The city was blockaded, and Dewey was obliged to await the arrival of an army. Assistance was sent as soon as possible. Some regulars and a large number of volunteers were sent to him, until the army in the Philippines amounted to about 20,000 men by December. General Wesley Merritt was sent in command of the army, but was afterward recalled to Paris and home on special duty, and was succeeded by General Elwell S. Otis. The Charleston sailed from San Francisco, May 18th, and the First California, with other troops, sailed on the 25th. Thereafter troops were sent as rapidly as possible, by way of Honolulu; and the monitor Monterey made the long trip safely in tow, soon to be followed by the Monadnock. As the cruiser Charleston was on its way to Manila, it stopped, June 21st, at the Island of Guam, in the Ladrone Islands, belonging to Spain, and fired a few shots by way of warning. The Spanish Governor sent word he could not fire a salute as he was out of powder. He was told to surrender, and it was some time before he could be made to understand that war had been declared, and

he was a prisoner. Leaving an American settler in charge as Governor, the Charleston sailed on in safety to Manila.

As the troops reached Manila, they were placed in camp west and south of the city. Aguinaldo, a former leader of revolutionist Filipinos, who had sold out to Spain for gold, as it was charged, and had gone to Hongkong, had returned with Dewey, and went ashore to organize a native force as allies, though Dewey had no official relations with him. Aguinaldo soon organized a quasi-Republic, of which he became the self-appointed dictator.

Our narrative now returns to Atlantic waters. Leaving smaller vessels to maintain the Cuban blockade, Admiral Sampson at Key West rendezvoused the flag-ship *New York*, the battleships *Iowa* and *Indiana*, the monitor *Puritan*, the cruisers *Cincinnati*, *Detroit*, and *Marblehead*, and the torpedo boat *Mayflower*, and on May 4th sailed eastward, looking for Cervera's fleet, which might possibly have sailed for San Juan, Porto Rico. On the 12th a portion of the fleet bombarded San Juan, did some damage to the fortifications and discovered that Cervera's fleet was not there. As to find the Spanish fleet was the principal object of the voyage, Admiral Sampson turned westward again.

In the meantime the first American blood of the war had been shed. Off Cardenas, Cuba, the blockading vessels *Wilmington*, *Hudson* and torpedo boat *Winslow* were attacked by Spanish gunboats and shore batteries. The *Winslow* was disabled and the *Hudson*, a converted ferry boat, went to her rescue and took her in tow just as Ensign Worth Bagley and four men were killed and Lieutenant Bernadou wounded by a Spanish shell. It was the most destructive shot of the Spanish navy during the war. On the same day the cables were cut by a party of American sailors in small boats off Cienfuegos, and one American was killed.

On May 12th positive information was received that Cervera's fleet was

at Martinique, Windward Islands. The next day Schley's flying squadron sailed for Key West. It was now certain that Cervera was going to Cuba, and it was necessary to catch him if possible. The plan laid out was for Schley to go around the western end of the island, with the chance of finding him at Cienfuegos, while Sampson sailed around the eastern end until he met Schley. And now comes the story of the only incident in the naval history of the war that has given rise to controversy, except one other which immediately followed. Schley sailed around Cuba and blockaded Cienfuegos, May 21st, where he believed Cervera's fleet was harbored. On the 19th word reached Washington that Cervera was at Santiago. Sampson was informed, and sent the news to Schley, telling him to go to Santiago if he was sure Cervera was not at Cienfuegos. Now, Schley, on May 25th, was not certain on this point, and remained at Cienfuegos until he got a second notice, when he sailed, May 26th, for Santiago, but did not complete a close blockade of the place, owing to the smallness of his fleet. He here received orders to close in, hold the place and sink a collier in the mouth of Santiago Harbor. Most of Schley's vessels were nearly out of coal, and he found it difficult and almost impossible to coal from a collier at sea. Notifying the Department of his condition, and that he could not follow instructions, he started to go back to Key West, May 29th, but the collier *Merrimac* broke down, and he finally managed to coal his vessels at sea. Schley claims that he had been told that even if Cervera was at Santiago he would surely come to Cienfuegos, which latter point it was necessary to watch closely. This is his explanation of not closing in on Santiago at first. Sampson's vessels soon began to arrive. On the 31st the batteries at the harbor were bombarded, and some damage done, and on June 1st Admiral Sampson arrived, took command of the whole fleet, and instituted a close blockade. Sampson now resolved to execute his plan for closing

up the harbor with a collier, and asked Naval Constructor Richmond P. Hobson to draw up the plan.

This he did, and received permission to execute it. This plan was simply to take in the collier Merrimac, until he reached a narrow place in the channel, anchor one end of the vessel, let the other swing with the tide, and, just as the collier was lengthwise across the channel, sink her with small torpedoes controlled by electricity. This was one of the most hazardous enterprises ever undertaken, yet when volunteers were called for nearly every man in the fleet wanted to go, and there were many heart-burnings over refusals. Hobson chose only six men, picked for courage, physical and technical skill. They were Osborn Deignan, George F. Phillips, Francis Kelly, George Charette, Daniel Montague and J. C. Murphy. Randolph Clausen, a coxswain of the New York, determined to share in the work, concealed himself in the Merrimac, and when discovered at the last moment, refused to leave his self-chosen post, making the eighth man of the party. The first attempt was made June 2d, but it was getting light, and the enterprise was postponed until the next night, when it was carried out, but not to a complete success. The Spanish batteries opened on the Merrimac, and the crew escaped death by a miracle. Unfortunately, the rudder chains were shot away, part of the torpedo wires cut, and when the collier sank it did not close the channel. Hobson and his men sank with the vessel and swam to a catamaran, from which they were taken at daylight by Admiral Cervera, who was out looking for an American warship he supposed he had sunk. On hearing Hobson's story Cervera was so impressed with his bravery that he sent an officer to Admiral Sampson, under a flag of truce, to allow clothes and money to be sent to the American prisoners, who were the only ones captured by Spain during the war. This touch of kindness pleased the American people so much that, later, the Spanish Admiral received many attentions in this country.

The Morro Castle and batteries along the mouth of the harbor were repeatedly bombarded, and the men driven from the guns, but the permanent damage was small. A part of the fleet attacked the batteries at Guantánamo Harbor, east of Santiago, and on June 10th, 600 marines landed and made a camp. They were attacked by Spaniards for two days, and lost four men. The navy shelled the hills, and the marines held their ground. Admiral Sampson now believed that an army could capture the batteries at the mouth of the harbor, and wired the President that with 10,000 men he could take Santiago in twenty-four hours. An army, principally of regulars, had been collected at Tampa under General Shafter, and this was hastily embarked on a fleet of transports. There were two divisions of infantry under Generals Lawton and Kent and one of Cavalry under General Wheeler, but the latter left their horses behind and fought as infantry. The only volunteers were two squadrons of First Cavalry (Rough Riders), the Seventy-first New York and the Eighth Massachusetts. Owing to a false alarm, raised by the report of Spanish cruisers in the Nicolas Channel, the sailing was delayed several days for more warships as convoys, but on June 13th the expedition sailed, about 16,000 strong, and was off Santiago on the 20th. There seems to have arisen a difference of opinion between Shafter and Sampson, which lasted through the campaign. Sampson wanted Shafter to storm Morro Castle, but Shafter said it would be impossible to land under the fire of Spanish batteries and take the place without incurring more loss than he felt justified in ordering. The troops began to disembark at Baiquiri, about fifteen miles east from Santiago, on the 21st, Lawton's division taking the lead; but as the task was difficult, due to the loss of lighters, the absence of suitable docks, and the fear of transport captains, which kept them far from shore, the work progressed very slowly, and the regular order of landing was not maintained. General

Wheeler's division began to disembark, and, as Wheeler was the ranking officer ashore, he pushed his men to the front along the Santiago road. Early on the 24th the Spaniards were met at La Guasimas and engaged by General Young's brigade. After a sharp fight the Spaniards were driven back. The American loss was sixteen killed and fifty-two wounded, including in the former Hamilton Fish and Captain Allyn K. Capron, of the Rough Riders. General Shafter feared Spanish bullets much less than yellow fever, which he knew was likely to break out, so determined on a brief campaign even at some discomfort and suffering. By the 26th the advance had reached within four miles of Santiago, along a single road over which all supplies and ammunition had to be transported by mule trains. Reinforcements which arrived finally gave Shafter about 22,000 men. General Shafter now ordered General Lawton's division to the right, on July 1st, to capture the Spanish town El Caney "before breakfast," and then to move to the left and join Generals Kent and Wheeler in taking San Juan Hill. Lawton did his work, but it took longer than was expected, as the Spaniards fought bravely from behind stone walls, and there were no siege guns at the front. The Spanish Mauser rifle proved a terrible weapon when properly handled. Fortunately, the Spaniards were poor marksmen. Without waiting for Lawton, Wheeler and Kent charged up San Juan Hill in the face of a galling fire from behind breastworks and stone walls, and took it with a rush after heavy loss. This charge up the hill is one of the most brilliant feats in our history. Barbed wires had been stretched so as to impede progress, but nothing could stop the gallant soldiers as they rushed up the hill. At the same time a feint was made by a brigade on Aguadores to the extreme left. The Americans lost heavily while waiting in line before the charge at the foot of the hill. Just behind them was a signal service balloon, which made a good target for the enemy. The two volunteer infantry regiments used black powder,

and smoke from these made a good target also. After the Americans captured San Juan Hill, they dug trenches, and successfully resisted heavy attacks from the Spaniards throughout the night and during July 2, who fought bravely in spite of the expectation that they would fly at the first fire. As the American line was thin and the attacks persistent, General Shafter asked his officers if it would be prudent to fall back. They decided in the negative. General Wheeler, who, in spite of his years and illness, had been active through the campaign, was insistent that no retreat should be made. On hearing from Shafter, the President sent General Miles with reinforcements. General Shafter lost in the two days 23 officers and 208 men killed, and 80 officers and 1,203 men wounded. The total losses of the campaign were 23 officers, 237 men killed, and 80 officers and 1,332 men wounded. Early on July 3d General Shafter sent a summons to General Toral, commanding at Santiago, to surrender. On that morning occurred the second great naval event of the war. General Shafter desiring to consult with Admiral Sampson as to the shelling of Santiago by the navy, the latter left on his flag-ship New York to meet the General. Not long after he had left, Cervera's fleet made a sortie out of the harbor. It was a surprise to the Americans. Many of the vessels had only a few boilers under steam, and some had their engines uncoupled. Commodore Schley, the ranking officer, set the signal to close in and fight. The Maria Teresa, Almirante Oquendo, and Vizcaya were soon riddled with shot, set on fire and beached, the officers and crew surrendering. The torpedo boat destroyers Pluton and Furor were quickly sunk, while the Cristobal Colon managed to get started well to the west, followed by the Brooklyn, Oregon, Texas and Iowa. The last two were sent to look after the three beached cruisers, and the others kept up the chase for about forty miles. The large guns seem to have done little damage, but the havoc of the smaller calibers

was frightful. The Colon was overtaken, and ran on the beach. Soon afterward the New York came up, with Admiral Sampson on board. Admiral Cervera and all his surviving officers and crew surrendered, amounting to 1,300. Several hundred were killed or drowned. The Americans lost but one man. The Spanish officers were sent to Annapolis, and afterward paroled. The sailors were sent to Portsmouth, and were finally allowed to go home.

On July 5th, Toral, who had declined the first summons, was again ordered to surrender, and refused; but a truce was agreed on to allow foreigners and women and children to leave the city. Fearing, from reports, that Shafter was in a dangerous situation, reinforcements had been rushed to him, and on July 11th General Miles arrived. Hobson and his crew were exchanged for Spanish prisoners. The navy bombarded the city on the 10th and 11th, and were preparing to do more execution when negotiations were opened by which, on the 14th, General Toral surrendered not only Santiago, but all of the eastern end of Cuba, and about 23,000 men, on condition that they be sent back to Spain at the expense of the United States. This was agreed to and the Santiago campaign was over.

In the meantime yellow fever and malaria had attacked the American army with terrible effect, and proved worse than Spanish bullets. Even the physicians were attacked and there were many deaths. Accordingly a camp was prepared on the east end of Long Island and named Wykoff, after the gallant officer who fell at Santiago, whither the army was transported and remained until the danger of contagion was over. The volunteer regiments were then disbanded. Colonel Wood was made a Brigadier, later a Major-General, and appointed Military Governor of Santiago. Roosevelt had been made Colonel of his regiment. Though there have been many criticisms of General Shafter and his campaign, it should be remembered that within a month he had invaded a foreign, tropical country, fought and won two hard battles,

and received the surrender of a greater force than his own with a comparatively small loss. Only about a dozen of the wounded died, as the Spanish bullets did little damage except when they struck a vital spot.

On July 20th General Miles sailed from Guantanamo with transports under convoy for Porto Rico. Instead of landing on the north side, as was expected, he landed on the south side at Guanica, which he took without resistance. General Brooke had sailed with his corps, amounting in all to some 35,000 men, and served under General Miles. Ponce surrendered on the 28th, and soon the American army from three directions advanced toward San Juan. There was a skirmish at Guayama on the 8th; at Coamo on the 9th, where the Americans lost one killed and six wounded; and on the 10th General Schwan drove back the Spaniards from Mayaguez. General Brooke now pushed to the mountains, and was just about to open the only serious battle of the campaign, when news of the armistice came. The loss in this campaign was three men killed and four officers and thirty-six men wounded.

Peace came about in this wise. On July 26th the French Ambassador at Washington, Mr. Jules Cambon, representing Spanish interests, asked for terms of peace. On the 30th President McKinley replied that peace could be secured by Spain giving up sovereignty of Cuba, ceding Porto Rico and Guam to the United States, while the Americans were to hold the harbor and city of Manila until a joint commission of Americans and Spaniards should determine the control, disposition and government of the Philippines. On August 11th a protocol agreeing on the above was signed in Washington, at 4.23 p. m., by Secretary Day and Ambassador Cambon. Hostilities were ordered to cease at once, but before the news reached Manila a combined attack was made, on the 13th, by Admiral Dewey and General Merritt, upon that place, which was captured with a loss of only fifty in killed, wounded and missing.

Previous to this, on July 31st, the Spaniards had attacked Merritt's lines at night, when nine Americans were killed and forty-seven wounded—most of them volunteers. Soon about 100,000 volunteers were discharged, including all who had served abroad, except a few regiments in the Philippines. The total strength of the army in August was just under 275,000 men. The total losses to October 1st were 280 killed and 2,630 dead of disease, including a few who died of wounds, making a total of 2,910, or a trifle over 1 per cent. of the whole, the smallest death rate ever known during a campaign. The deaths from disease were largely of typhoid fever, most of them in volunteer camps. Up to March 1, 1899, the total deaths were about 5,000.

The war was now over and arrangements were made to carry out the protocol. Joint commissioners were appointed to superintend the evacuation of Porto Rico and Cuba. The former was easily accomplished, but the latter was not concluded until in the early part of 1899, though the Americans took possession of the island on January 1st, and raised the Stars and Stripes on Morro Castle and over the wreck of the Maine.

The President appointed as commissioners to make the formal Peace Treaty in Paris William R. Day, Senator William P. Frey, Senator Cushman K. Davis, Senator George Gray and Whitelaw Reid. These met the Spanish Commissioners October 1st, but it was not until the middle of December that the treaty was signed. Spain wanted this country to assume all or part of the Cuban debt, which was refused. Then this country demanded the cession of the Philippines, offering \$20,000,000 as compensation for recent improvements. The latter was finally agreed to under protest, and was ratified by the Senate February 6th. The Queen Regent signed the treaty March 17, 1899.

One great result of the war was the wiping out of the sectional feeling in this country. The North and the South were equally patriotic and by general consent the one sectional issue was

buried. This alone was worth all the war cost in blood and treasure. Also the fact that Great Britain was our firm friend through the war, though obliged to act neutrally, wiped away much of the prejudice that had existed between the two nations, and brought them into friendly relations that are likely to have important consequences.

In August much complaint was made as to the inefficiency of the commissary, quartermaster and medical departments of the army. Over 2,000 men died of various camp diseases, there were complaints that the food was bad, and it was hinted that there was corruption or inefficiency in many departments. Secretary Alger was the chief object of these complaints. He demanded an investigation, and the President appointed nine commissioners to inquire into all the complaints. They were General Grenville M. Dodge, Colonel J. A. Sexton, Captain E. P. Howell, General J. M. Wilson, Charles Denby, Urban A. Woodbury, General James A. Beaver, General A. McD. McCook and Dr. Phineas S. Connor. All the officers named were from civil life and gained their titles in the Civil War, except General Wilson, who was Chief of Engineers of the Army, and General McCook, who was a retired officer of the regular army. In January, 1899, Commissary-General Egan, in a report to the War Inquiry Board, attacked General Miles, using unbecoming and abusive language, because of the former's charges about the army beef, some of which was alleged to have been "embalmed under the pretense of an experiment." For his language General Egan was court martialed, convicted and suspended from duty for six years. The unfortunate controversy over the conduct of the War Department did much to detract from the satisfaction over our brilliant victories on land and sea. The commission's report mildly censured the War Department and Inspector-General's Department, but found in general that the operations of the war had been conducted with unusual swiftness and efficiency.

To investigate the charges of General

Miles, a Board of Inquiry of army officers was constituted. It found the charges unsupported by the facts.

In the elections of November, 1898, the Republicans were generally successful and elected a majority of the House of Representatives, something unusual for a party in power in the middle of an administration. Colonel Roosevelt was elected Governor of New York, and the Republican pluralities as a whole were greater than in 1896, due largely to the fact that a number of Western States returned to Republican allegiance. The Legislatures elected chose enough Republican Senators to give that party a large majority, so that both the administrative and legislative bodies were, after March 4th, in the hands of the Republicans.

On July 6, 1898, the joint resolution annexing the Hawaiian Islands was passed by large majorities in both Houses of Congress. A commission was appointed to draft a form of government for the islands, the American flag was raised, and the local Government temporarily continued. The commission reported to Congress, but it was not acted on by the Fifty-fifth Congress. When Congress met in December, 1898, there was general satisfaction over the result of the war, but the policy of expansion of our territory was by no means unanimously approved. While the division of opinion on what was termed "imperialism" did not follow party lines entirely, most of the anti-expansionists were Democrats. The subject was injected into debate when the Senate received the treaty with Spain. The opposition was determined and ably led. One of those most anxious to defeat the treaty was Senator Hoar, of Massachusetts, a lifelong Republican. The House also discussed the subject, as it was necessary to appropriate \$20,000,000 to carry out the treaty. The Senate ratified the treaty by a narrow margin, and the House voted the appropriation, but not until many long, and sometimes bitter, speeches had been made. Indeed it is possible the treaty might not have been ratified at all but for the precipitate ac-

tion of Aguinaldo and his followers near Manila, which will hereafter be described. Several Senators who wavered in their views were brought over by this outbreak to support the treaty. The administration policy was to establish order in Cuba and the Philippines before taking any steps toward establishing their political status.

Congress passed a law to amalgamate the line and staff officers of the navy in recognition of the fact that modern war vessels are now mere fighting machines and engineers are equally responsible with the line officers and deserve the same rewards.

A bitter fight was made over the reorganization of the regular army. Under the terms of enlistment the volunteers and all but 28,000 regulars were to be discharged on the ratification of peace. As this would not leave enough for the temporary occupation of Cuba and suppression of native insurgents in the Philippines, the administration desired that the regular army be fixed at 100,000 men. To this leading Democrats offered such objection that a compromise was finally made to increase the regular army to 65,000 men and authorize the enlistment of 35,000 volunteers, but the extra regulars and all the volunteers were to be mustered out July 1, 1901. This bill was signed by the President, the expectation being that a new law would be passed if circumstances required before 1901.

Owing to a wide difference of opinion as to whether Admiral Schley or Sampson was entitled to the credit for the victory of Santiago, the Senate confirmed none of the President's naval promotions for gallantry during the war. This controversy aroused much feeling. Admiral Schley was the popular hero, but officially Sampson was given the chief credit. It was the only controversy over naval matters of the whole war.

An effort was made to provide for the construction of the Nicaragua Canal. Measures to this end, differing in details, passed both houses by very large majorities, but failed in conference, though the President was author-

ized to appoint a commission to investigate the whole subject.

Congress also passed in 1898 a national bankruptcy law. The former one had been repealed about twenty years previously.

The unexpected acquisition of the Philippines was the source of new troubles. From the beginning Aguinaldo, the young leader of a former rebellion against Spain, had expected that the United States would set up a Republic in the Philippines or permit the Filipinos to do so. A mock sort of organization was formed with Aguinaldo at its head, but it was never recognized by the United States or our military authorities in Manila. Thereupon Aguinaldo became impatient. He had collected a considerable army, which was tolerably equipped and lay in the outskirts of Manila. Finding he would not be recognized, early in February, 1899, he began hostilities by an attack on the American troops under General Otis at Manila. The attack was easily repulsed with great loss to the natives and little to the Americans. This attack was followed by field operations of much difficulty, many engagements being fought, in which the Filipinos were steadily worsted. The disposal of Aguinaldo's army was followed by extended guerilla warfare.

The friendly feeling between this country and Great Britain had been manifested in many ways during the war and it was looked upon as an auspicious time to settle a number of disputes of long standing with Canada. These were chiefly in reference to the Alaskan boundaries, fishing and sealing rights and reciprocal trade. A Joint High Commission of the two nations met in 1898-99, but had not accomplished anything definite when they adjourned in February, to meet later in the year. The most difficult subject was that which related to our tariff laws. Canadian lumber, coal and agricultural products would naturally come in competition with our own goods, and the Dingley tariff law was designed to prevent this. Mr. Dingley was on the commission and naturally could not

agree to important modifications. His death and that of Lord Herschell, head of the British Commission, were greatly regretted by both nations.

The American army in Cuba had little trouble in preserving order, but the poverty of the people and unsettled political status made improvement slow. By agreement with General Gomez, the United States gave \$3,000,000 to pay the Cuban troops. The Cuban Assembly demanded a much larger sum and dismissed Gomez for accepting the offer. This brought the Assembly into reproach, as it did not express the wishes of the great masses of the people.

In January the stock market developed an activity never before known in our history. Prices advanced rapidly, and a wave of speculation seemed to have struck the whole country. In New York for some time the sales on the Stock Exchange averaged 1,000,000 shares daily. This was the result of general industrial recovery from a period of depression, large harvests and the heavy balance of foreign trade in our favor. Railway earnings showed large increases, while manufacturers in nearly every branch of trade were busy. Development of our iron industry is shown by the fact that we can sell steel rails cheaper than any other nation in the world. During 1898 large shipments were made to India, Austria and Russia; many orders were refused, as it was impossible to fill them. American electrical machinery was sold all over the world, and American locomotives were in great demand. These tokens of prosperity helped to dispose of the silver question, though the leading Democrats of the country declared their intention of adhering to the Chicago platform of 1896.

The rise in stocks was accompanied by the formation of a great many so-called "Trusts." The name arises from the fact that when the earlier aggregation of competing firms or corporations were made, the property was placed in the hands of trustees for the benefit of all concerned. Originators of these combinations claimed that competition

had become so fierce that it was merely a question of combination or general failure. The public generally looked upon such combinations as an attempt to control the output of a commodity for the purpose of raising the prices to the consumer. Nearly all of the States, as well as Congress, passed laws to make these monopolies impossible, but they have been of little effect in stopping the process of combination. Up to March 1, 1899, there were already incorporated in New Jersey companies with an aggregate capital of \$2,000,000,000, most of which were combination of corporations or firms to create monopolies. This probably represented over one-half the total of such corporate capital in the country.

So important has the movement become that it has been injected into politics as an issue. Regardless of the moral and economic value of these trusts, it is interesting to note the development of manufacturing in the century. During the first quarter manufacturing was largely done in the homes by manual labor. Invention of machinery developed the factory system, which spread rapidly during the second and third quarters, and in the last quarter the individual factory began to disappear, and organizations to monopolize various industries appeared. Likewise in the cities the large department stores have largely monopolized trade to the exclusion of the small shopkeeper. These developments have been viewed with alarm by many thoughtful people, who fear the centralization of control over the production of so many commodities and deprecate the elimination of the individual merchant and manufacturer. Certainly it is one of the interesting problems of the Nineteenth Century which the Twentieth will be called upon to settle.

In September, 1899, the United States addressed a note to the powers in which it asked to be assured that the "open door" in China would be maintained. That is to say, this country wanted a declaration from the powers

to the effect that its trading privileges in Chinese territory would not be interfered with by any foreign power temporarily or permanently in control of that territory, by lease or otherwise. After tedious negotiations the desired assurances were obtained March 20, 1900. The first symptoms of the "Boxer" outbreak had been observable for some time, and European nations were demanding protection for their missionaries. It was felt that our conquest of the Philippines had given us new interests in the East, which should be safeguarded in any concerted action by the powers. The advisability of doing this, and even of maintaining our hold on foreign conquests, was questioned by many, and it was made the chief issue of the approaching political campaign, the Republicans advocating the expansion policy, the Democrats the contrary.

The choice of the two principal political parties for standard-bearers fell on the same men as four years before, McKinley and Bryan, but the addition of the new issue did not strengthen the Democratic nominee, for he received only 155 electoral votes to 292 cast for his Republican opponent.

President McKinley made no change in his Cabinet, but it was understood that Attorney-General Griggs would resign. He argued with signal ability the Government's side in the test cases brought to establish the legality of collecting duty on importations from the new possessions. The Supreme Court held in two cases (December, 1900, and May, 1901,) that Porto Rico and the Philippines are not parts of the United States in the meaning of the constitutional clause which prescribed that "all duties, imports and excise shall be uniform throughout the United States." There was a dissenting minority.

The very general American sympathy with the Boers in their unequal struggle against Great Britain acted as a kind of pressure on the administration, which had preserved the strictest neutrality. Accordingly a well-meant offer

of mediation between the contestants was made March 13, 1900, but it was declined by Great Britain.

Our trade interests were helped during 1900 by reciprocity treaties with Portugal (June 12), Italy (June 18) and Germany (July 13). Of more interest as being in line with the administration's policy was the treaty ratified by the Senate January 16, providing for the partition of the Samoan Islands. By its terms Great Britain relinquished her claims, the United States received Tutuila and other islands east of 171° of W. longitude, while Upolu and the other islands west of that meridian fell to the share of Germany. This arrangement gave us Pago Pago harbor, the best and most defensible coaling station in the South Pacific. But the treaty which dwarfed all recent ones in significance was the new canal treaty with Great Britain, so widely discussed and so variously modified before attaining the form finally signed by Secretary Hay and Lord Pauncefoot, November 18, 1901. It superseded the obsolete Clayton-Bulwer agreement concluded half a century before, when the present development of civilization had scarcely been dreamed of, and the changing commercial and national requirements of a later age could not, of course, be adequately anticipated. For a long time public sentiment had demanded an abrogation of the Clayton-Bulwer arrangement, and the demand became more imperative after the Monroe Doctrine obtained its new importance. Congress had anticipated its probable action in the matter by authorizing the Isthmian Canal Commission (headed by Admiral Walker and composed of military, naval and civilian experts) in the river and harbor act passed March 3, 1899. The exhaustive investigation of the subject by this competent body covered nine months' time and cost \$1,000,000. Its report, submitted December 4, 1900, was favorable to the Nicaragua route, though the Panama one was acknowledged to have advantages in respect of length, shorter time of transit, and probable smaller cost of construction. A change

of opinion came at the end of 1901, when the French Canal Company, the successors to the De Lesseps' Company, offered to sell their partly completed canal, with their material and treaty rights, to the United States for \$40,000,000. This offer was accepted and the Nicaragua project abandoned. A treaty was negotiated with the Republic of Columbia to obtain the necessary rights in the Isthmus, but this was rejected by the Colombian Senate. As a result, Panama declared its independence of Colombia and established a separate Republic, with which the United States concluded a treaty in November, 1903, agreeing to pay the new Republic \$10,000,000 for the territory and privileges needed. The following two years were consumed in preliminary work, of organization, engineering, and combating the causes of disease upon the Isthmus, and it was not until 1906 that the actual work of construction could be inaugurated.

An important question arose as to whether a sea level canal or a lock canal at a higher level should be constructed. The former, while the most desirable, would cost far more and take much longer to construct, and the lock system was finally accepted.

The "Boxer" rebellion in China, commencing early in 1900, resulted in the wholesale massacre of Christian missionaries and their native converts, and finally culminated in the siege of the buildings occupied by the European legations in Peking. In order to rescue these, the powers dispatched a joint force of 50,000 men, of which the American contingent was commanded by General Chaffee. The expedition was at first unable to overcome the obstacles encountered, but received reinforcements and made a new start, relieving the nearly exhausted embassies August 14, 1900. The Chinese Government had at the outset merely connived at the excesses of the "Boxer" chiefs, but later had made common cause with them. Accordingly, the powers determined to exact not only a suitable money indemnity, but sufficient guarantees for the future and full material

reparation for the wrongs perpetrated by the Dowager Empress and her chief functionaries, who had sought safety in the West on the approach of the allies. Some of the aggrieved nations were disposed to place so high a price on their wrongs and their vindication that it could have been paid only by seizing and administering the revenues of the entire Empire for years to come. It was seen that this would eventually result in the dismemberment of the Empire, and finally, at the instance of the United States, the other powers reduced their demands, so that the whole indemnity was fixed at 450,000,000 *taels* (\$338,000,000). In addition, the chief authors of the outrages were beheaded or banished to Turkestan, and expiatory monuments were erected in each of the desecrated foreign cemeteries. The formal evacuation of Peking, in accordance with the terms of the peace protocol, was completed September 17, 1901. It is noteworthy that the American, British and Japanese troops showed themselves more amenable than the others to military discipline and the laws which govern modern warfare.

Many believed that our participation in this punitive expedition, following so closely upon the annexation of Hawaii and our acquisition of the Philippines, Porto Rico, Guam and a part of the Samoan group—all widely separated island possessions—committed us to a policy of expansion. This charge of "imperialism" (to use the term of those favoring the opposite policy) was thought by some to be confirmed by the tacit, if not formal, assurance given by the United States early in 1902 that it would support in the East the alliance between Great Britain and Japan, the two nations acting in the interests of the "open door," or equal commercial opportunities, in Manchuria, which had been threatened by Russian encroachments in that country. Freedom of commerce was in reality all that the United States showed any desire to attain. Far from seeking territory in China, as other nations were doing, this country exhib-

ited and counseled leniency in dealing with that Empire after the Boxer outbreak, and was so greatly in favor of an early evacuation of the Chinese capital that General Chaffee was ordered to withdraw his forces without waiting for similar action by the allies. Throughout this unhappy affair the United States showed friendliness to and consideration for China, with none of the self-seeking greed manifested by several of the other powers.

The troops sent to Peking in 1900 were withdrawn from the Philippines, where the military strength of Aguinaldo and his army had been so reduced that they could be spared. On March 23, 1901, Aguinaldo was captured by a ruse adopted by General Funston, and he subsequently declared his allegiance to the United States, thus removing the most serious factor in the Philippine problem. Guerrilla warfare continued for some time longer, but the main portion of the people were soon pacified, and in the few following years opposition was completely overcome.

This cessation of hostilities was followed by the replacement of military by civil government, the purpose of the United States being to fit the natives for self-government by means of good schools, impartial courts of justice, and wise legislation. A special Philippine Commission was appointed, headed by Judge William H. Taft. By this a close examination was made into the state of affairs on the islands, and on July 1, 1902, an act was passed by which military rule in the Philippines was terminated, and civil government established, Judge Taft being made the first Governor. On his resignation, in December, 1903, to enter President Roosevelt's Cabinet, Luke E. Wright succeeded him as Governor. Seven commissioners were appointed as executive officials, four of them Americans and three Filipinos. A police system was also established, consisting of a native constabulary under American control, and governors and courts were given to the several provinces of the islands.

A census of the Philippines was taken in 1903, the population returned being 7,635,426. Of these nearly 7,000,000 were in a greater or less degree civilized, the remainder being wild tribes, some of them complete savages. The islands contain thirty distinct races, with different languages or dialects. Education has been reorganized and the schools are attended by more than 800,000 students, under 6,000 teachers, four-fifths of whom are educated Filipinos. English is very generally taught, but there has been no interference with religious faith, the population being practically all Catholics. As a result of peaceful conditions, the products of the islands are rapidly increasing and commerce is steadily growing, while the people are being fitted for self-government. This it is proposed to give them when they become suited to its exercise, and eventually the islanders will be practically permitted to govern themselves.

As regards the other insular possessions of the United States, there are only two of political importance, Hawaii and Porto Rico. In the former a new territorial government was inaugurated at Honolulu June 14, 1900. A census taken the same year showed a population of 154,001. Porto Rico has not advanced to territorial dignity, but is controlled by a Governor and Cabinet appointed by the President of the United States. It has a Legislature, consisting of an "Upper House," composed of the Cabinet officials and five citizens appointed by the President, and a "Lower House," elected by the people. This state of affairs is not satisfactory to the citizens of the island, an active political excitement being kept up in favor of territorial or State organization. Free trade with the United States exists, and prosperity is increasing.

The relations of Cuba to the United States since the war with Spain have been highly interesting. The close of the war left that island in the military occupancy of the United States, but under the express understanding that independence should be granted to its

people. In consequence, steps towards the establishment of an independent nation, under a stable system of government, were gradually taken. General Wood, appointed Military Governor in December, 1898, immediately selected a Civil Cabinet composed of natives, a movement towards self-rule which was quickly followed by others. A constitutional convention began its sessions on November 5, 1900, and a Constitution was adopted on June 12, 1901, the form of government being republican, with a President and Vice-President, a Senate and House of Representatives. The United States was in full accordance with this action, though it demanded certain limitations, mainly intended to secure the new Republic from danger of insidious or open attempts by European nations to endanger its liberties. These were embodied in the so-called Platt Amendment, introduced in Congress March 2, 1901. By this it was required that Cuba should never make a compact with any foreign power that might impair its independence, or permit any such power to obtain control of any part of its territory in any manner. It should contract no public debt too great to permit the ordinary revenues of the island to pay the interest, and provide a sinking fund for the eventual extinguishment. It should give satisfactory attention to the sanitation of its cities, so as to prevent the danger to the United States likely to arise from the outbreak of infectious diseases. It should permit the United States to intervene for the preservation of its independence and the maintenance of a government adequate for the protection of life, property and individual liberty. And to enable the United States to do this it should agree to the establishment of coaling or naval stations at certain specified points upon its soil.

There was much opposition in Cuba to this act of legislation, of which the more significant items are above given, and a delegation of prominent citizens was sent to Washington to confer with the President and his advisers. They

were well received, the purpose of the United States was made clear to them, and on their return to Havana on May 16 they reported in favor of accepting the Platt Amendment. This was accordingly done, and the only obstacle to the establishment of the new Republic removed.

The election of a President for the Republic of Cuba was next in order, and T. Estranda Palma, the most prominent candidate, was elected without opposition, December 31, 1901. Thus all the steps necessary for the launching of Cuba upon the world, with the exception of the withdrawal of the troops of the United States from its soil, were taken, and this final step soon followed. Under a call issued by Governor Wood, the Cuban Congress held its first meeting on May 5, 1902, and on May 20 the new Government was formally inaugurated, President Palma taking the oath of office. Amid the salutes of cannon, the American flag was lowered from the public buildings in Havana, and the Cuban flag rose in its place. Within an hour the last United States troops left the soil of Cuba, and General Wood embarked on the cruiser "Brooklyn" for his return homeward. Cuba was left a free nation, under the independence won for her by the arms of the United States.

A lamentable event took place on the 6th of September, 1901, President McKinley being shot by an Anarchist while on a visit to the Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo, N. Y. The assassin approached the President in a line of visitors advancing to shake hands with him and shot him while he was extending his hand for this purpose. He was immediately seized by the bystanders, who would have torn him to pieces but for the officers of the law. He was tried and executed in the following month. The President died from his wound on the 14th of September, and five days after was buried with impressive ceremonies at Canton, Ohio. The feeling of grief in the country was intense, and vast numbers of the people crowded to witness

the funeral cortege as the body was borne solemnly through the country.

Vice-President Roosevelt succeeded the murdered President, announcing that he would maintain the policy of his fallen chief, a declaration which was received with high satisfaction. His first message to Congress, in December, 1901, was an able and strong document, showing a sound knowledge of the country's needs and giving forcible expression of his opinion upon many public questions. He entered office free of obligation to politicians and party leaders, and began his career with a rigid adherence to the principles of the Civil Service Commission, of which he had been a member, refusing to appoint any man to office on any standard but that of merit. He soon showed that he was a man of very strong character, firmly set in his opinions, rigid and determined in action, and so full of vigor and energy that he quickly became known as the "Strenuous" President. By his independence of spirit and action he won the applause of the people at large, irrespective of party, and grew to be a general favorite. Among the principal events of his administration was the settlement of the question of the Panama Canal, already spoken of, and the great strike of the anthracite coal miners in 1902, which left millions of people largely destitute of coal in a severe winter. It was finally settled through the influence of the President. A new department, that of Commerce and Labor, was added to the government in 1903, George B. Cortelyou, private secretary to Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt, being appointed its first Secretary. He became a ninth member of the Cabinet, and was subsequently appointed Postmaster-General. In 1904 St. Louis was the seat of a great International Exposition, in honor of the Louisiana Purchase of a century before, 1,180 acres being provided and twelve immense buildings constructed. The display was of extraordinary extent and variety, the scenic effects were beautiful, and it was viewed with satisfaction by millions of people.

In 1904 the most prominent candidate for the presidency was Theodore Roosevelt, who had won support from the Democrats, as well as from his own party, during his three years in office. The Democratic party had no especially strong man to offer as a candidate, and the nominee, Alton B. Parker, was decisively beaten at the November election. President Roosevelt and Vice-President Charles W. Fairbanks were duly inaugurated on March 4, 1905, and the President entered upon his new term of office more strenuously than ever. In the summer of 1905 he won the plaudits of the world by taking steps which led to a peace conference between the warring nations, Japan and Russia, and the final conclusion of a treaty of peace at Portsmouth, N. H.

An interesting event of the year 1905 was an International Exposition held at Portland, Oregon, as a centennial recognition of the Lewis and Clark expedition of a century before. The period in question was also notable for serious disasters. In February, 1904, a conflagration swept through the business section of Baltimore, destroying property to the value of \$70,000,000. A far more frightful disaster took place in April, 1906, an earthquake followed by a fire, destroying the greater part of the city of San Francisco, the total loss being estimated at \$300,000,000 and 200,000 people being left homeless and dependent upon charity for support.

The year 1905 was one of remarkable prosperity in the country, and was equally remarkable for a great reform movement, made especially notable in Philadelphia by the overthrow of the powerful political ring in that city, but showing itself in nearly every large city of the land. In addition, a spectacular examination was made of the affairs of the great insurance companies of New York, which proved that they had been permeated by fraud and led to the enforced retirement of their chief officials. As a result of the various exposures made, the United States entered the year freer from pub-

lic and private venality than it had been for many years preceding, and with a degree of material prosperity almost unprecedented in its history.

The Brownsville Affair created much useless discussion in Congress. On the night of August 13th and early morning hours of the 14th, 1906, bitter feeling had, for some time, existed between the colored troops in the garrison of Fort Brown, and the people of the town; on account of real or fancied slights on the part of the latter toward the soldiers. According to the theory of the Secretary of War, from 9 to 20 men from the battalion of 170 formed a preconcerted plan to revenge themselves upon the people of the town. About midnight they made an attack on the town, killing one citizen, wounding another and seriously injuring the chief of police. An investigation was at once begun by the Inspector General, who reported that he was unable to obtain any evidence from the troops that they had any knowledge of the affair. On the receipt of this report, President Roosevelt issued an order dismissing without honor the entire battalion.

The right of the President to take this summary action led to much useless discussion in Congress. The investigation being taken up at each session of Congress, the long drawn out affair being finally terminated by the report of the military court of inquiry, which on April 6, 1909, confirmed the guilt of the soldiers of the 25th Infantry.

In 1906 conditions in the Island of Cuba had become unsettled, President Palmas finding himself unable to cope with the political situation, requested the assistance of the United States Government to bring about a peaceful solution of the difficulties. Under the provisions of the act of Congress, relative to our relations with Cuba, President Roosevelt decided on intervention. Mr. Taft, then Secretary of War, was sent to the Island. He was shortly after succeeded by Mr. Charles E. Magoon, who was appointed provisional Governor, October 13, 1906. Under

his authority political conditions were adjusted in the Island. And in 1908 a general election was held resulting in the election of General Jose Miguel Gomez. And on January 28, 1909, the American provisional Governor Magoon turned over the administration to the new executive; thus ending the second intervention of the United States in the affairs of Cuba.

The cordial relations of the United States and the Foreign Governments remained unchanged, with the exception of Japan. The action of California in excluding the Japanese from the public schools of that state, caused Japan to appeal to the Federal Government; but tact and the admirable diplomacy on the part of both governments brought about the peaceful settlement of the issue.

A vacancy was caused in the United States Supreme Court by the death, on October 24, 1908, of Associate Justice, Rufus W. Peckham. The place was filled by the appointment, on December 13th, of Judge Horace H. Lurton.

Among the important measures passed by the 59th Congress was the establishment of a Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization of aliens throughout the United States, on June 14, 1906. For the union of Oklahoma and Indian Territory into a single State, and its admission into the Union, June 16, 1906. An act to provide for the election of a delegate to the House of Representatives from Alaska.

The 60th Congress which convened on December 3, 1907, was the largest in point of numbers that has assembled in the history of the government; this was the result of the admission of Oklahoma as a State, which added two Senators and five Representatives.

President Roosevelt refused to consider a further term, and the Republican Party in convention named as its nominees, William H. Taft, of Ohio, for President, and James S. Sherman, of New York, for Vice-President. The Democratic party named for its nominees William Jennings Bryan, of Nebraska, for President and John W. Kern, of Indiana, for Vice-President.

This presidential campaign was remarkable in the lack of prominent issues by either party, in being more of a personal preference for either Mr. Taft or Mr. Bryan.

The result of the elections, held in November, gave Mr. Taft the office with a large plurality, and he was duly inaugurated as President, and James S. Sherman as Vice-President, on March 4, 1909.

TAFT ADMINISTRATION.

President Taft chose for members of his Cabinet, Secretary of State, Philander Chase Knox, of Pennsylvania; Secretary of the Treasury, Franklin MacVeagh, of Illinois; Secretary of War, J. M. Dickinson, of Washington; Secretary of the Navy, George von L. Meyer, of Massachusetts; Secretary of the Interior, Richard A. Ballinger, of Washington; Secretary of Agriculture, James Wilson, of Iowa; Postmaster General, Frank H. Hitchcock, of Ohio; Attorney General, George W. Wickersham, of New York; and Secretary of Commerce and Labor, Charles Nagel, of Missouri. Shortly after Senator Knox had consented to become Secretary of State, in President Taft's Cabinet, it was discovered that by a provision of the constitution he was ineligible for the office. This provision provides, that "no Senator or Representative, shall during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments thereof which shall have been increased, during such time." During Senator Knox's term in the Senate the salary of the Secretary of State had been advanced from \$8000 to \$12,000. Under the provision stated above he could not, therefore, hold the office. In order to nullify the effects of this provision, a bill was immediately introduced into the Senate, to reduce the salary of the Secretary of State from \$12,000 to \$8000. The Senate passed the bill without a dissenting vote. A similar measure was introduced into

the House, and some opposition having developed, a telegram was sent by Mr. Taft to the Senate and House leaders, urging the enactment of legislation to overcome the constitutional objections. The minority of the House insisted that the Senate's action did not nullify the value of the constitutional clause, but the measure was passed according to the action of the Senate. And the bill was immediately signed by President Roosevelt.

President Taft entered upon his administration under the most favorable conditions. There were no serious foreign complications, the country was never in a more prosperous condition, and the party in administration had the confidence of the people.

This administration witnessed three incidents that occupied the attention of the country and the investigation of Congress.

Serious charges had been preferred against Mr. Richard A. Ballinger, Secretary of the Interior. While he was Commissioner of Public Lands, from which office he accepted the Cabinet position, he was charged with improper conduct in connection with the patenting of coal lands in Alaska. Mr. L. R. Glavis, formerly chief of the Field Division of the General Land Office, charged: "That Mr. Ballinger had used his influence in 1908, during a period from his resignation as Commissioner of the Land Office to the time when he was appointed Secretary of the Interior, to aid the patenting of these claims;" which it was alleged, by Mr. Glavis, were based on fraudulent and unlawful entries. These charges, brought before President Taft in August, 1909, caused much official and private discussion, during the latter part of 1909, and the greater part of 1910. Upon the opinion rendered by the Attorney-General, Mr. Taft directed the discharge of Mr. Glavis from the service of the Government, and issued a statement, in which he entirely exonerated Mr. Ballinger.

This, however, did not stop the public discussion, Gifford Pinchot, the Chief Forester, was admittedly hostile

to Mr. Ballinger's administration of the Land Office, and believing the charges to be true had instigated Mr. Glavis to prefer them. President Taft removed Gifford Pinchot, Chief Forester, and with him two leading subordinate officers of the Forestry Bureau, Overton W. Price, Associate Forester, and Albert C. Shaw, Assistant Law Officer. Secretary Ballinger demanded an investigation of the charges by Congress. And on January 6, 1910, Congress appointed a committee for that purpose.

In December a report of the majority of the committee completely and fully exonerated Mr. Ballinger. Congress adjourned without acting on the report. On March 7, 1911, Secretary Ballinger tendered his resignation as Secretary of the Interior. President Taft in accepting his resignation declared that he had been the "object of one of the most unscrupulous conspiracies for the defamation of character that history can show."

Mr. Ballinger was succeeded in office by Mr. Walter L. Fisher, of Chicago.

There was begun in the 62d Congress (1912) the unusual procedure of a trial for impeachment. This was against Judge Robert W. Archbald, a member of the United States Commerce Court, who was charged with improper conduct, early in February. After a preliminary investigation by the Attorney-General, who recommended that the papers should be transmitted to the committee on the judiciary, of the House of Representatives. Proceedings commenced in the House May 7th and were continued daily until June 4th. As a result of the hearings the House of Representatives, on July 11th, voted for impeachment. And on January 13, 1913, the Senate rendered a unanimous decision, removing him from office.

Senator William Lorimer's (Illinois) seat in the Senate was protested on the grounds that he had been illegally elected. The investigation of this matter by Senate committee, started early in January, 1911, and discussion of their report in the Senate continued un-

til July 13, 1912, ending in the action of the Senate, expelling William Lorimer from their body, declaring his seat vacant.

The year 1909 was marked by two brilliant events of geographical importance. On April 6th, Commander Robert E. Peary, U. S. N., reached the North Pole, the goal that for centuries had baffled all efforts to attain it.

On January 9th, Mr. Ernest H. Shackleton, of England, after traveling far south over the Antarctic Continent, reached a point about 111 statute miles of the South Pole, in 88° 23' S. Lat. and 102° E. Long.

The year 1910 marked more important changes in the personnel of the United States Supreme Court than perhaps any other year in the history of the government.

The deaths of Chief Justice Fuller and Associate Justice Brewer, and the resignation of Associate Justice Moody, on account of illness, created three vacancies. On April 25th President Taft appointed Governor Hughes of New York Associate Justice, to succeed Justice Brewer; in December he appointed Associate Justice Edward Douglass White to succeed the late Chief Justice Fuller, as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court; at the same time he appointed Joseph R. Lamar, of Augusta, Georgia, and Willis Van Devanter, of Wyoming, Associate Justices.

The relations of the United States with the Great Powers were uniformly friendly during the years 1909, 1910 and 1911.

The year 1912 was an especially exacting period in the foreign relations of the United States. This was caused chiefly by the disordered conditions in Cuba, Mexico, and several of the Central American States. It required the highest exercise of diplomacy and caution to avoid complications involving the active participation of the United States in the affairs of these countries. And in one case, Nicaragua, the American Government was forced to take an active hand. From August to November Nicaragua was in a state of revolution, which as it imperiled the lives

and property of American citizens led to the intervention of the United States for their protection.

The conditions in Mexico caused President Taft to mobilize an army at several points on the Texas border.

General Francisco Madero opposed the autocracy of the Diaz administration, demanding a more general suffrage, and to compel this active rebellion against the existing administration started early in 1911. The revolt spread rapidly, and the fighting in the northern States of Mexico caused the deaths of several Americans, by the warfare between the revolutionists and the administration forces along the border.

President Diaz resigned, and as the result of the election held, General Madero was installed November 6th as president.

The conditions in Mexico, however, still remained unsettled. Numerous rebel leaders, dissatisfied, continued a guerrilla warfare, requiring the policing of the border by our regular troops. Revolution and counter-revolution continued throughout the year 1912. President Madero and Vice-President Suarez were shot "while attempting to escape" February 23, 1913. Not all the relations of the American Government with Central and South American countries were of an aggressive nature. The government took part in several arbitrations and mediations and through the efforts of American diplomacy wars were prevented.

The closing year of President Taft's administration witnessed the geographical knowledge of the Polar antipodes. The information was given to the world of the successful accomplishment of the expedition headed by Captain Roald Amundson, of Norway, to the South Pole. Captain Amundsen reached the Pole December 16, 1911. There was one appointment to the Bench of the United States Supreme Court in 1912. Mahlon Pitney, of New Jersey, received on the Bench the place made vacant by the death of Justice Harlan in 1911.

The principal event of the first year

of President Taft's administration, in the sixty-first Congress, was the passage and enactment into law of the Payne-Aldrich bill, entitled, "An Act to Provide Revenue, Equalize Duties and Encourage the Industries of the United States and for other Purposes."

Among other measures was the creation of a Court of Customs Appeals, to consist of one Presiding Judge and four Associate Justices. President Taft appointed as Presiding Judge, Robert N. Montgomery, of Michigan, and James F. Smith, of California; Arion M. Barber, of Vermont, and Marion De Vries, of California, as Associate Justices. The salaries of these judges were fixed by law at \$10,000, but Congress appropriated for the year 1909-10 only \$7000, and the Urgent Deficiency Appropriation Act, approved February 25, 1910, made this allowance permanent. This court has final jurisdiction over all disputed questions connected with customs. An appropriation of ten million dollars for the purpose of taking the Census (1910).

On June 18, 1910, a bill was passed providing for the admission of the territories of New Mexico and Arizona as separate states, eliminating all territories within the contiguous territory of the United States. The new constitutions of these States to be ratified by Congress and the President before admission. In a special session of Congress in July, 1912, the bills for admission were passed and became laws.

Another important measure passed in 1910 was a bill creating a Commerce Court, to consist of five circuit judges, to be appointed, in the first instance, by the President. The terms of office are so arranged that one judge will retire from the court annually, his place being filled by some circuit judge to be designated by the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. No reassignment of a judge to the Commerce Court shall be made until a year has elapsed after the close of his former service.

An amendment to the Interstate Commerce Act extends the jurisdiction

of the Commission to telegraph, telephone and cable companies, whether wire or wireless, engaged in the transmission of messages otherwise than wholly within a single State.

An act creating a Bureau of Mines in the Department of the Interior.

An act creating the establishing of the Postal Savings Bank.

The 61st Congress adjourned March 4, 1911. And President Taft called for a special session of the 62d Congress on April 4th.

This Congress was marked by several features of unusual interest; it was the first time that a Democratic House of Representatives had assembled for sixteen years. And it was the first time in the history of the government, that a Democratic House had been called in extra session by a Republican President, to act on an administrative measure which a Republican Senate, in the previous session of Congress, had refused to consider.

The 62d Congress occupied one special and three regular sessions, and a vast number of bills were proposed and discussed, the tariff occupying much attention. Among the most important enactments, made in this session, in its two years of existence, may be mentioned the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Amendments to the National Constitution. "The Congress shall have the power to lay and collect taxes on incomes from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration." The Seventeenth Amendment provides that, "I. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, elected by the people thereof for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislatures. II. When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: *Provided*, That the Legislature of any State may empower

the executive thereof to make temporary appointment until the people fill the vacancies by election as the Legislature may direct. III. This amendment shall not be construed as to effect the election or term of any Senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution."

The Panama Canal Bill. In 1912 Congress passed laws providing for the operation of the Canal and regulating the passage of vessels through it. The measures included a provision that American coastwise ships should be exempted from the payment of tolls.

A measure providing for the establishment of an Industrial Relations Commission, this commission to consist of nine members, representing the public, employers and labor.

A bill providing for a Department of Labor was signed by President Taft on March 4, 1913, which was practically his last official act.

The presidential campaign of 1912 was, in many of its features, the most extraordinary in the history of the United States. It was a campaign marked by a bitterness of attack and defense, for which comparisons are to be sought only in campaigns early in the history of the nation. It saw finally the defeat of the Republican party, as a result of internal dissension, by a Democratic vote, which was less than the vote cast in the presidential election of 1908.

The Republican Party named as their nominees President Taft and Vice-President Sherman for re-election. The new "Progressive Party" at a most enthusiastic convention, named as its nominees ex-President Theodore Roosevelt for President and Hiram W. Johnson, of California, for Vice-President.

The Democratic Party named as its nominees Governor Woodrow Wilson, of New Jersey, for President, and Governor Thomas R. Marshall, of Indiana, for Vice-President. The result of the vote cast at the November elections, gave to the Democratic candidates a small plurality over the candidates of the New Progressive party;

resulting in the election of Governor Wilson and Governor Marshall. They were inaugurated as President and Vice-President March 4, 1913.

WILSON ADMINISTRATION.

President Wilson selected for members of his Cabinet William J. Bryan, of Nebraska, Secretary of State; William G. McAdoo, of New York, Secretary of the Treasury; Lindley M. Garrison, of New Jersey, Secretary of War; Josephus Daniels, of North Carolina, Secretary of the Navy; Franklin K. Lane, of California, Secretary of the Interior; Albert Sidney Burleson, of Texas, Postmaster-General; David Franklin Houston, of Missouri, Secretary of Agriculture; James C. McReynolds, of Kentucky, Attorney-General; William C. Redfield, of New York, Secretary of Commerce; William B. Wilson, of Pennsylvania, Secretary of Labor.

The first year of President Wilson's administration was a troubled one for American diplomacy. The new administration was obliged to meet and cope with the situation in Mexico, left as a legacy from the previous administration.

Early in 1913, the unsettled conditions in Mexico had assumed serious proportions; the revolutionists combining and with considerable strength attacking the constitutionalists (Madero) near the City of Mexico. General Victoriano Huerta, President Madero's Commander-in-Chief, joined with other leaders in overthrowing the Madero government. And on February 19, 1913, he usurped the power of government, assuming the title of Provisional President. The following day President Francis I. Madero and Vice-President Jose Suarez were arrested at the National Palace. Three days later they were shot to death on a midnight ride, under guard from the palace to the penitentiary. The manner of their deaths has never been satisfactorily explained. General Huerta sent a telegram to President Taft, stating, "I have overthrown this government and

peace and prosperity will reign." President Taft, nearing the end of his term, left to his successor, the problem of adjusting diplomatic relations with Mexico.

President Wilson refused to recognize Huerta's authority. This refusal, together with his (Huerta's) inability to raise funds, and the minor successes of the Constitutionalist forces in the north, weakened Huerta's administration in its efforts toward bringing about a peaceful condition throughout the country. General Huerta's policy was that of a military dictator, and his administration has been aptly characterized as a reign of blood.

United States diplomatic relations in the City of Mexico were left in the hands of Mr. O'Shaunessy, Charge de Affairs, and President Wilson sent ex-Governor Lind, of Minnesota, to Mexico as his personal representative to mediate for the nation's peace. Huerta announced that he would not tolerate foreign interference. During the spring and early summer the constitutional forces, in opposition to the Huerta government, had assumed considerable proportions. Don Venustiano Carranza had been chosen as their Commander-in-Chief, and their uniform success in opposing the Federal troops had by the fall seen the northern states under the Constitutional government. During this time thousands of refugees had crossed the border into the States of Arizona and Texas for safety.

Despite the protests of President Wilson, and General Carranza, General Huerta issued a proclamation for a general election to be held October 26th. Belizario Dominguez, Senator for the State of Chiapas, boldly denounced Huerta as "a bloodthirsty and ferocious military tyrant;" after making his speech Senator Dominguez mysteriously disappeared. On October 10th General Huerta caused the arrest and imprisonment of 110 deputies; who had attempted to investigate Dominguez's disappearance. The election was held, the vote cast, apparently giving Huerta a majority. President Wil-

son again protested and demanded Huerta's resignation.

The success of the Constitutionlists continued during the year. General Villa in command of a second Constitutional army moving south rapidly crushed the Federal forces before him. The policy of the last few months of the Taft administration, of non-interference, was followed by the new administration.

During March of 1914, an incident occurred in the City of Tampico; a shore launch containing an officer and several sailors from a United States battleship in the harbor, was boarded by an officer of the city; the officer and sailors on the launch were arrested without apparent cause. President Wilson demanded reparation and an apology from Huerta, who replied: "The men have been released, and the officer responsible for the arrest has himself been arrested and is awaiting trial."

President Wilson determined that proper recognition and respect of the United States should be observed; demanded a public apology, to consist of the Federal Government firing a national salute of twenty-one guns, to the American Flag. This demand was evaded by General Huerta, and to force its compliance President Wilson directed the mobilizing of the entire Atlantic Fleet in Mexican waters. Congress was asked to empower the President to land an armed force, and an ultimatum was sent General Huerta. On April 14th, under the protective fire of the guns from the warships in the harbor, a large force of marines and sailors were landed at Vera Cruz. After sharp fighting, with severe loss to the Mexicans and four killed and several wounded to the Americans, the town was taken, the Custom House seized, and the city garrisoned by the American forces.

After this action the Washington authorities subsided into a policy of "watchful waiting."

The South American Republics—Argentina, Brazil and Chile—tendered their good offices as mediators, to bring

about a solution of the difficulties between the two governments, and a peaceful adjustment of the Mexican situation. Their good offices were accepted by the United States and Huerta's government; Generals Carranza and Villa declined to be represented in the proceedings.

The mediation representatives met at Niagara Falls, New York; this conference was known as the A. B. C. Mediators. But up to the end of June, 1914, they failed to arrive at any conclusion. The Constitutionalists, in the meantime, had combined their forces, and were rapidly approaching the Mexican capital. General Huerta, early in July, tendered his resignation as President. He was succeeded by Francisco Carbajal. The situation at the capital (Mexico) was critical.

In August Francisco Carbajal resigned and the Constitutionalist troops under General Carranza entered the Mexican capital. Carranza was declared the Provisional President. On September 23d the Constitutionalists, under General Villa, declared war upon the Provisional President. On October 14th Carranza resigned and later General Eulalio Guiterrez was appointed, by the convention, Provisional President. Carranza refused to recognize him.

The new President appointed Villa Commander-in-Chief of the Government forces, and ordered him to proceed at once against Carranza.

On November 23d the American forces were withdrawn from Vera Cruz, and soon afterward Carranza and his followers took possession of the seaport.

Matters became squally again during December, after the border warfare at Naco, Mexico, had resulted in over fifty casualties; including several deaths of persons in Naco, Arizona. President Wilson ordered reinforcements of 5000 troops to the border town.

On January 15, 1915, Guiterrez was succeeded by Roque Gonzales, with Mexico in a state of revolution and counter-revolution. The brief occupation of Vera Cruz by the United States

forces, cost in all nineteen American lives.

President Wilson called a special session of the 63d Congress on April 7, 1913, primarily for the purpose of formulating a new tariff bill. The principal features of the special and first regular session of this Congress, was the discussion of tariff rates, and in October, 1913, the Underwood bill was signed by the President. This bill was remarkable for the sweeping reductions in rates, but little heed was paid to protection, the average duty under the new law would be 26 per cent.; the lowest imposed in 75 years. It was notable also because of the controversial part played by the Executive in its passage. The first regular session of the 63d Congress, the longest on record, came to an end October 24th. Including the special session of 1913, the national legislature had been in continuous operation for 567 days.

With a Senate amendment, to the effect, that the United States relinquished no rights under treaties with Great Britain and Panama, the repeal of the provision in the Panama Canal act, of August, 1912, "exempting vessels engaged in the coastwise trade from the paying of tolls became a law."

Several industrial bills were passed and a Federal Trade Commission created, in August, 1914. Constitutional amendments giving the suffrage to women were carried in Montana and Nevada, and prohibition triumphed in Washington, Oregon, Arizona and Colorado in 1914. July of this year witnessed the death of United States Supreme Court Justice Horace H. Lurton.

On August 10, 1914, Pope Pius X died and Benedict XV succeeded him on the throne of St. Peter, on September 3d.

During 1913 a decided check was apparent in business throughout the United States, many mills and large plants shut down, or continued only on partial time; causing thousands of wage-earners to seek other employment. This was attributed to the decided change in tariff legislation. During

1914 the congested centers throughout the United States were confronted with the problem of caring for the unemployed.

The outcome of the November election was in the nature of a political landslide.

The Democratic majority in the House of Representatives was reduced from 147 to 25, although the Democratic majority in the Senate was increased from 10 to 16.

The administration was confronted with the complications arising from the Mexican troubles on our southern border, and with internal difficulties caused by a deficit in revenues, when like a bolt from a clear sky came the news of a general European conflict.

On Sunday, June 28th, the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, was assassinated in Saravego, Bosnia. On July 23d the Austrian Government sent an ultimatum to Serbia, demanding: "The persons responsible for the assassination of the Archduke, and the instant suppression of all anti-Austrian propaganda in that country."

The Servian Government replied to the Austrian demand with a single exception—that which would have empowered Austrian officials to take a leading part in the punishment of the murderers. The reply was not satisfactory and Austria promptly declared war.

The day after Austria declared war on Serbia, the Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs warned the German Ambassador that if Serbia were invaded, Russia would not be able to remain neutral. The German Emperor sent a 24-hour ultimatum to Russia, demanding all cessation of war preparations. On August 1st, at the expiration of this ultimatum, the German Emperor gave orders for the mobilization of the army to proceed against France. Belgium refused to permit the German army to pass through her territory and was invaded. Great Britain declared war on Germany on August 4th and sent a large force to France.

The Russian, French, English and

Belgian forces were allied against the combined forces of Germany and Austro-Hungary. Japan at the intercession of England, declared war on Germany, confining her operations to the German possessions in the East.

Turkey joined forces with the Germans and opened a campaign against the English in Egypt and the Russians in Europe.

It is estimated that over twenty millions of men were under arms and engaged in this mighty conflict. The close of the year 1914 witnessed no apparent gain by either of the combatants.

The Wilson administration nearing the close of the first half of its term was engaged with many serious and difficult problems. The opening months of the year 1915 witnessed this gigantic conflict in Europe; that had caused a cessation of all trade with that continent for some time. The commerce of Germany, with whom our country carried on extensive trade, was at a standstill, and other foreign commerce was reduced to almost nothing.

Mexico, our southern neighbor, was in a state of revolution. Canada, on our north, was involved with the European War, and our industrial conditions were demanding official attention.

Early in the year (1915) Great Britain, for herself and her allies, declared a blockade of all German ports. This so-called blockade was replied to by Germany, in a note sent February 4th to the Neutral Powers, declaring a blockade of England, establishing a War Zone of the English Channel and North Sea, to be effective February 18th. In this note Germany advised the Neutral Powers that if conditions made it impracticable to convoy a vessel to port, the vessel would be sunk. And that conditions might make it impossible to protect those on board.

President Wilson replied, to this note, that the United States Government maintained the right of its citizens to travel, unmolested upon the high-seas; provided by Treaty and International law. And that for any infringement of this right, Germany would be held to a strict accountability.

A similar note of protest was sent to the government of Great Britain.

Germany, in accordance with her note declaring the blockade, commenced active hostilities against England's merchant vessels, and even extending this hostility to neutral vessels caught within the so-called War Zone. These hostilities were mostly carried out by means of the submarine and torpedo; her war vessels and cruisers being either kept within home or interned in foreign ports. These activities of Germany, torpedoing and sinking, generally without warning, vessels under all flags resulting in the loss of an American life (a passenger on an English vessel) caused vigorous protest by President Wilson to the Imperial German Government.

On May 7th the whole world was astounded by the inhuman act of a German submarine. The "Lusitania," a transatlantic liner of 50,000 tons or more, belonging to the Cunard Line, with over 2000 passengers on board, men, women and children, was torpedoed and sunk without warning off the Irish Coast. About 1200 persons lost their lives, among these were over 100 Americans.

This act caused a most critical situation to be met by the President. A note was sent to the Imperial German Government in protest of this method of submarine warfare, and on behalf of humanity. And again maintaining the rights of American citizens to travel upon the high seas, without fear or molestation. And that the United States Government would hold the Imperial German Government to a strict accountability. The reply of the German Government was evasive, ignoring the incident of the sinking of the "Lusitania" and making suggestions for the settlement of differences between the two governments, that were untenable.

After grave deliberation, the President's reply, while most friendly in tone, was decisive. He called the attention of the rights of American vessels, fixed by treaty between the two governments, and that the Government of the United States demanded for its

citizens all the rights provided for by International law. And that he felt sure the Imperial German Government would recognize these rights, and that any further acts by the Imperial German Government, in contravention of these Treaty rights and International law, would be considered as deliberately unfriendly.

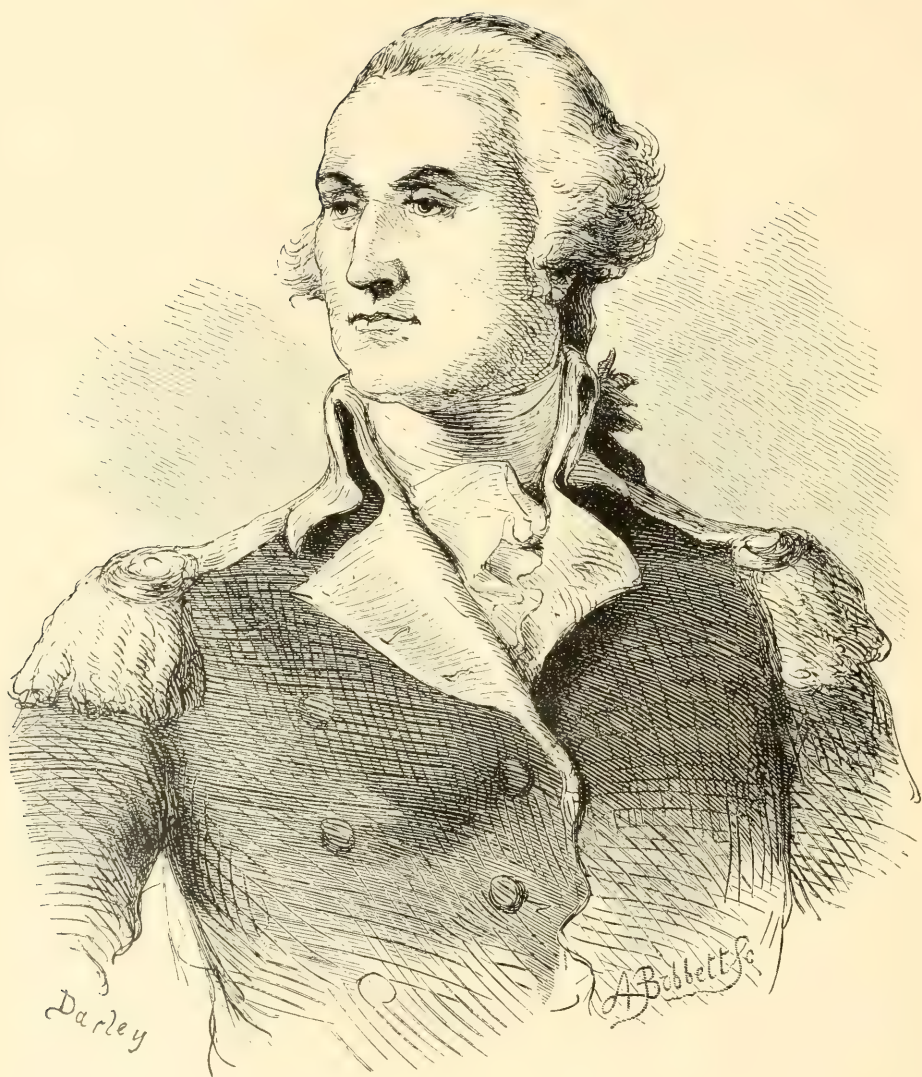
William J. Bryan, Secretary of State, at this time, astounded the nation by his action. The previous note, to the German Government, was signed by Mr. Bryan. When the President had prepared the above note, Secretary Bryan refused to sign it, and resigned his office as the President's chief adviser, declaring: "That as a humble follower of the Prince of Peace" he would not sponsor so aggressive a document. Believing that the people of the United States and the Government should lead the world for peace, and that all differences should be settled by arbitration.

The President promptly accepted Mr. Bryan's resignation and appointed to fill his place Robert E. Lansing, former attorney for the State Department.

The reply of the German Government to this note was as decisive, in action, as President Wilson's was in words. About the middle of August the White Star Company's transatlantic liner the "Arabic," while on her way to New York from England, encountered the merchant steamer "Dunsley" in distress, having been torpedoed. The Arabic slowed down and altered her course, to ascertain if she could be of assistance, and was herself torpedoed without warning by a German submarine. The vessel sank in ten minutes, causing the loss of 39 lives, among whom were two Americans.

The situation for President Wilson and his Cabinet was trying and critical; relations with Germany strained almost to the breaking point. Endless controversy with Great Britain over acts caused by the conditions of the war.

The eight months of the year 1915 of the Wilson administration was most trying.



George Washington

BIOGRAPHY

BOOK II

BIOGRAPHY

(SEE ALSO INDEX)

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

1732—1799

FATHER OF HIS COUNTRY.

Until the Father of His Country had finished life, it was not known that human nature could produce political careers so unselfish. Poets and dramatists had not even planned them, so truly is the human imagination harnessed to the low-rolling car of Reality. It was thought that sane and powerful men, when they could, would grasp and hold power and found dynasties. When Robespierre watered the tree of liberty with the blood of tyrants; when Danton threw at the feet of his enemies the head of a King—they had but risen from learning the lesson taught by the living Washington. They might have read hints of that lesson in the books of Rousseau, but they had seen it in full with their own eyes in the life of Washington.

Why is General Washington greater than Samuel Adams and Benjamin Franklin? Because men recognize but one law—force. They all reason, argue, convince, submit, after they must, after they feel compulsion. He, therefore, who uses the ultima ratio—he who relies wholly upon force—will ever be first. It is the law of gravity. We do not complain that the heaviest weight sinks to the bottom. A man may be a genius in bringing on the fight; he may be without peer in harvesting the rewards of a victory; if he cannot, did not, lead the battle and win, he must righteously give way to the captain who did.

Granting that General Washington could have been king, and chose rather the glory of being father of a democracy, thus leaping to the front place in human interest, why, then, was he

not merely fortunate in receiving the nomination of Commander-in-Chief from John Adams, rather than to see that nomination go to John Hancock, or Gates, or Greene, or Knox, or Ethan Allen, or Joseph Warren? To this, the testimony is direct from all surrounding points that any other commander would have failed. General Washington was the one calm man who could understand the situation, keep his temper, keep the British from splitting the Union in twain and hold the hills till the French came.

General Washington, as a captain, resembled Marshal Daun, Maria Theresa's beloved leader. He took few risks. The Duke of Wellington in Spain seems to have copied General Washington's methods. General Grant certified to General Washington's skill when General Lee's army was held to be in itself the Great Rebellion, and all other matters—cities, railroads, ports, crops—were forgotten. General Washington gave up New York and Philadelphia willingly rather than to attempt to defend them. The British took the cities and waited for General Washington to sue for mercy. When the French arrived, the British themselves surrendered. This, barring Burgoyne's capitulation to General Washington's subordinate at Saratoga, is the main part of the story. The fact that over seven years elapsed between Bunker Hill and Yorktown, and over eight years between Bunker Hill and peace, may be taken as a measure of the poverty and lack of public spirit manifested by the colonies and exemplified in their Congress. But it also measures General Washington's patience.

Augustine Washington married Jane Butler, who died, leaving him three sons and a daughter. He then mar-

ried Mary Ball, who bore him four sons and two daughters. Mary was the mother of George Washington, and he was her first child. He was born February 22, 1732, at Bridges Creek, Virginia. The old-style-date of those days was February 11. The birthplace was afterward burned. The family then went to live in a large house, with two great chimneys, overlooking the Rappahannock River, near Fredericksburg, which lay across the stream. In 1743 Augustine Washington died, leaving his widow with ten children. George was sent to Fredericksburg to learn his alphabet and arithmetic from one Hobby, sexton of the parish; next he went to live with his half-brother, Augustine, at Bridges Creek, where Mr. Williams kept a school which George attended. He was a tall, muscular boy, and a leader of his playmates. His moral education had been rigid, and accorded well with a highly practical and severe turn in his own nature. He took nearly everything in earnest, and early set out to coin money and good repute from the wisdom of his stern mother's maxims. Tales of his moral sentimentalism are as incredible as they appear to be unsound in history and tradition.

Mr. Williams taught his pupil arithmetic, perhaps geometry, and certainly trigonometry, with the practical addition of surveying. We must consider Virginia as largely a wooded country watered by many rivers. English lords had acquired this country by gift or purchase, and had settled the river regions with friends, retainers, or purchasers of land; vast areas remained for sale; much was still unsurveyed. The profession of surveying was the best one a young man could follow, and this pupil was fitted by nature for the hardships of the task. It is thought he owned a little book called "The Young Man's Companion." Out of this, when he was only a lad, he copied or digested over one hundred rules of etiquette and moral conduct. He considered them so good that he would do well to adopt them. "Labor to keep alive in your breast that little spark

of celestial fire called conscience." These rules—how and when to take the hat off, how to act at table, how to keep the conscience keenly alive—were to be carefully studied, along with the surveying. He was very confident that all depended on him, and that nothing could be more just. Such are the traces which the early papers of the Father of His Country have left, showing the sane, sensible, docile tendencies of this muscular son of the silent imperious woman who bore him.

The half-brother of George Washington, Lawrence, fourteen years older, was no inconsiderable figure. Lawrence went abroad as a sailor, entered the British navy, fought with Admiral Vernon at Carthagen, and, returning to Virginia, built a house on the Potomac River, which he gratefully named Mount Vernon—in honor of his commander—a mansion sometime to be the Mecca of democratic faith. At fifteen George Washington was a visitor at Mount Vernon. Lawrence meanwhile had married the daughter of William Fairfax, who was agent for the Fairfax estate, one of the vast grants of which we have spoken. Lord Fairfax, himself chief of the house, inheritor of the grant, then sixty years old, was in America inspecting the property, and desirous to learn how much of it there might be. Lord Fairfax took a deep and generous interest in George Washington on seeing him. The twain went fox hunting together, and after the young man had mastered the art of surveying, Lord Fairfax commissioned him to go with George Fairfax, William's son, over the Blue Ridge Mountains, and come back with a survey of the ultra-montane acres of the Fairfax estate that lay in the wilderness. In March, 1748, George Fairfax and George Washington set forth, through Ashly's Gap into the valley of the Shenandoah River, went on their way up to the Potomac River, in spring floods, surveyed the region in the South Branch of the Potomac; met a party of Indians, who celebrated their acquaintance with a war dance; met a train of German emigrants; slept out-

doors all the time, and got back to Mount Vernon somewhat speedily, April 12th. Careful entries were made in a diary. Lord Fairfax was well pleased to hear he had so many acres in such a garden spot, and procured the appointment of public surveyor for George, so his surveys would have authority. This gave to the young man some three years more of the same kind of work.

In 1751 Lawrence Washington was so ill with consumption that it was thought best for George to go with him to Barbadoes, in the West Indies, where George caught the small-pox, recovered, and was back at Mount Vernon in February, 1752. In July Lawrence died, leaving George guardian of a daughter, and heir to the estate if the daughter should die without issue. Lawrence, with the advice of Lord Fairfax, had become a great land speculator on the Ohio River, and had long seen that he must fight to preserve the rights or arrogations of his land company against those of the French. With good military sense he had sheltered at Mount Vernon two brave soldiers of Carthage, Adjutant Muse, a Virginian, and Jacob Van Braam, a Dutch soldier. These two men formed the college of war by which America learned to be free. Adjutant Muse taught George Washington the manual of arms, tactics, and the art of war. Jacob Van Braam instructed his pupil in the exercise of the sword. The learner was then appointed Adjutant-General for Northern Virginia, with the rank of Major. The Governor at Williamsburg, Dinwiddie, desired to deliver a message to the advancing Frenchmen that they were encroaching on Virginia plantation. He therefore commissioned Major Washington, with Von Braam, servants and horses (October, 1753), to go to the Ohio River, under guidance of the frontiersman Christopher Gist and make known the views of the English. His desire was to conciliate the Indians and ally them against the French. Major Washington was received politely at French Creek on the Ohio River, and

brought back a vague answer from the French commandant. He returned to Williamsburg already a hero, as he had attended many a perilous war dance of the Indians, and had succeeded where other Virginians had previously turned back in fear. His personal report was that war could not be avoided.

Colonel Fry was put in command, with Washington Lieutenant-Colonel, and the latter recruited two companies at Alexandria and hurried forward in advance of Fry to protect the frontier. He had not gone far before he was convinced that there was a state of war already. He reached the Monongahela River, and there made a protest to the Governor because of the inadequacy of supplies and men. Coming up with a small body of French soldiery, he surprised, surrounded and fired on their camp. Ten French were killed, twenty-one captured, and one escaped. Colonel Fry died, but the rest of the regiment advanced and met Colonel Washington. The "massacre," as it was called, had roused the French and they came on, four to one. They surrounded Colonel Washington and made him agree to march off and not come back for a year. The Indians, his allies, and critics, said he showed little military skill, and ordered them around very harshly, but the French they denounced as cowards. He had written a boastful letter about loving to hear the bullets whistle, and now with the "massacre" and surrender on his hands, he did not figure heroically at Paris when the news got there. The fact, however, that Colonel Washington had offered battle in the open field before he agreed to march away was gratifying to the Virginia Assembly, and they voted him thanks, with a Colonel's pay. At this critical juncture the English Government issued an order that any officer bearing the King's commission should outrank any officer not bearing such paper. When General Sharpe asked Colonel Washington to join him, the Colonel indignantly refused, as any sub-lieutenant from England might outrank him. General Braddock ar-

rived with two regiments or regulars, and hearing of Colonel Washington, at once offered him a staff position as Colonel, where nobody could give him orders but his General. Colonel Washington gladly accepted, early in 1755. In Pennsylvania Benjamin Franklin began bargaining for Braddock's Quaker wagons, on his own bond. Who could believe that these Frenchmen, now swooping in on all sides, were to help free America, losing it first themselves?

Braddock was hot and fiery. The dignity of the provincial "Estates" nettled him. He rebuked Colonel Washington when he spoke of the savages as warriors, and, after many delays, reached Fort Duquesne (Pittsburgh). Before that French stronghold, July 8, 1755, "Braddock's defeat" took place, with Colonel Washington pushing to the front, though ill. Six hundred Indians and 200 French killed or wounded 700 English. Sixty-two out of eighty-six English officers were killed or wounded. Colonel Washington had two horses killed under him, and four bullets went through his clothes. General Braddock himself was mortally wounded, and Colonel Washington buried him four days afterwards, reading the funeral service at the grave. He led back his little band of defeated soldiers, and solemnly pondered on the reasons of their disaster and retreat. He was appointed to command the Virginia frontier, and passed twenty months in that region, with the episode of the trip to Boston, which we will describe. A Captain Dagworthy appeared on the scene with a King's commission, and thought to take Washington's command. On this Colonel Washington, in buff and blue uniform, with a white and scarlet cloak over his shoulders and a sword knot of red and gold, with an aide on each side and servants following in the rear, set out for Boston to protest to Governor Shirley, the Commander-in-Chief. The Colonel's horse was a good one, caparisoned in the finest London housings, with "livery lace" and the Washington coat of arms. His cavalcade

made a stir wherever it went. The Colonel's journey was a complete success. Captain Dagworthy and his thirty men were put to the rearward by Governor Shirley, and Colonel Washington attended several balls, and looked well over Puritan Boston. Again Colonel Washington returned to the frontier, leading a dull life, till the spring of 1758, when, on a journey to Williamsburg, he stopped to dine with his friend Major Chamberlayne at William's Ferry. There he met Martha Dandridge, the young, rich and handsome widow of Daniel Parke Custis, who lived at the White House, near by. On his return he called there and made an offer of marriage, which was duly accepted. The French Fort Duquesne fell, and he at once resigned his commission and hurried home to prepare for a brilliant wedding. Colonel Washington was now an important personage in Virginia. He owned many acres of Western lands that were secure. He had the military dignity of a Colonel; he had traveled to the West Indies and Boston; he had been in battle; he had a family connection with Lord Fairfax; he secured his position as tobacco planter by wedding a lady with a fortune of her own. He had been elected a member of the House of Burgesses (Legislature), and now removed to Williamsburg. When he took his seat the Speaker paid him a high compliment, in the Virginian fashion. The Colonel rose to reply, but stool stammering and blushing. "Sit down, Colonel Washington," said the Speaker, "your modesty equals your valor, and that surpasses the power of any language I possess."

At thirty he was owner, by inheritance, of Mount Vernon, where he lived. He was a successful tobacco raiser.

He was hot-tempered—a soldier's mettle. He wrote to a Major in answer to an impertinent letter: "I would not have taken the same language from you personally without letting you feel some marks of my resentment."

By this time political excitement had reached a high stage at Boston. The

Stamp Act had been passed by Parliament, and Patrick Henry, a new and almost unknown member of the Virginia House of Burgesses, had offered resolutions that were considered very radical. Colonel Washington had voted for these resolutions, but did not foresee war. Some years later, when the colony had determined to refuse to import the taxed articles, he had strictly upheld this course, using none of the articles under the taboo. When next Colonel Washington sat in the Legislature, the port of Boston had been sealed by England. June 1, 1774, was appointed a day of fasting, humiliation and prayer in Virginia out of sympathy with Boston. Lord Dunmore, the Governor of Virginia, at once prorogued the Legislature because it had so voted. Colonel Washington dined with Lord Dunmore, but nevertheless fasted on the day appointed. A town meeting at Boston was directing the policy of the colonies; the tobacco nobility of the Virginia rivers was going along leisurely toward rebellion.

The Fairfax County meeting sent Colonel Washington to Williamsburg August 1, 1774. He rose in the Virginia Convention and said: "I will raise a thousand men, subsist them at my own expense, and march them to the relief of Boston." He had carefully considered the case, and he was at once as clear as Samuel Adams. There was not a moment of indecision, for it was his profession as a soldier and his desire as a brave man to lead the fight, if there were to be any.

Virginia sent six delegates to the first Continental Congress. Colonel Washington, Patrick Henry and Edmund Pendleton traveled together. Congress sat in Carpenters' Hall, Philadelphia. Here Samuel Adams met Colonel Washington. Both men had little to say on the floor during the fifty-one days of the session. Patrick Henry said: "If you speak of solid information and sound judgment, Colonel Washington is unquestionably the greatest man on the floor." This Congress did little, following the Quaker policy at Philadelphia. Colonel Wash-

ington returned to Mount Vernon and drilled troops, a company at a time. Soldiers began to arrive. May 10, 1775, when he next appeared at the Second Continental Congress, he was in his buff and blue uniform. Thus two men—Franklin and Washington—made their attire reveal their sentiments, as the Indians put on their war paint and head dresses. Colonel Washington was chairman of the military committee. At Boston Samuel Adams had left Joseph Warren in charge, and his army (outside Boston) was now surrounding Gage in Boston. June 15, John Adams at Philadelphia, forcing Congress to act, nominated Colonel Washington to be Commander-in-Chief.

Again Colonel Washington—now General Washington—rode forth, but this time at the head of a brilliant troop of officers, bound for Boston. The news of Bunker Hill came to him only twenty miles out. "Did the militia fight?" he asked. He was overjoyed to hear they had done nobly. He left General Schuyler in charge at New York, and took General Lee on to Cambridge. He was with his army of Bostoneers July 2. The next day, under the Cambridge elm, he drew his sword against King George.

With headquarters at the Wadsworth House, he counted 14,000 raw recruits. Entrenchments were thrown up, and rules separating officers from men, after the Old-World military fashion, were enforced. After he had brought order to his military republics, he advised with thirteen Governors and Assemblies and Congress. He sought for powder. He sent expeditions into Canada. He addressed Gage in Boston, and Gage, in the King's name, talked to him about "rebels," "criminals," "cords." He, like Benjamin Franklin, was constituted a prize or admiralty judge, and was harassed with petty marine details.

March 4, 1776, at night, however, he took possession of Dorchester Heights, and made Boston untenable. Lord Howe had assumed command in Boston, and on the 17th he evacuated with 12,000 troops, leaving cannon, but pil-

laging the city. General Washington made a glowing report of what he had done without powder. He was now forced, as he saw the English going from Boston harbor to New York harbor and southward, to consider the devastation of his own home. He wrote letters hoping the patriots would bear up, and he became bitter against Tories.

Howe had 30,000 men. General Washington, as a military necessity, ought to burn New York and retire. The provincial tax-payers demanded a battle, at any odds, in front of New York, and no evacuation by the Federals. He stayed on Long Island—in Brooklyn. His General Sullivan was surrounded, and his own main works were reached. The loss was 2,000 men. Nine thousand Continentals were left in a critical position. Out of this dilemma General Washington escaped on the night of August 29, 1776, and retreated up Manhattan Island. The militia began to fade away, and to talk about Braddock's defeat, listening to industrious Tory recollections, all of which tended to discourage the spirit of independence alike in soldier and civilian. The English next made a dash in on the Americans at Kip's Landing, where Washington, with his own eyes, saw the cowardice of his men at the mere sight of red-coats. This rendered him furious. In his anger he struck the fleeing men with his sword. He retreated swiftly to King's Bridge, with 12,000 men, 25,000 British coming up slowly after him. The British lost six days in advancing and General Washington got up the Hudson River to White Plains on strong ground. General Howe came up and drove General Washington's forces into a still stronger place. Howe now prepared to winter at Dobb's Ferry. General Washington, against his own wishes, had left two forts down the river occupied with his troops. Both fell to the British. Fort Washington, the second, was carried by storm and 2,600 Continentals with munitions were captured. With this deplorable loss, General Washington began to fall back into New Jersey, and Lee was defeated

through neglect of orders. December 2, 1776, General Washington, with 3,000 ragged men, was at Princeton, New Jersey. There was a growing feeling of discouragement in his army. The New Jersey militia would not turn out. Howe's amnesty was circulated everywhere. As the troops neared Philadelphia, the signers of the Declaration voted to die at their posts, and then adjourned to Baltimore.

General Howe did not press on; he went back for Christmas-tide at New York City. Now, if General Washington could have received some aid from Congress, it would have been well. He wrote them how his life was at stake, his character was to be lost, his estate was to be confiscated; could they not then, see that his advice must be for the best? But they considered that they must debate it. At Christmas, as Howe and his red-coats were under the mistletoe, General Washington prepared to strike the British with his six little groups, or detachments. He would fall upon the English at Trenton, across the Delaware River. Gates, Ewing, Putnam, Griffin, Cadwallader, all should cross the Delaware in mid-winter with him, and surprise Trenton. Orders were given. Gates simply would not do it. Griffin met the enemy and retreated. Putnam and Ewing believed they could do it. Cadwallader started to do it, and the broken ice deterred him. General Washington arrived at the river, to do his part, with 2,400 men. It was not too bad for him. He went over in boats, on a terrible night. From the landing it was a nine-mile march in a sleet-storm to Trenton. "Our arms are wet," Sullivan sent word. "Then tell your General to use the bayonet, for the town must be taken." The town *was* taken. The Hessians threw down their arms and fled, at seeing an invading army come in out of the storm. A thousand of them were captured. General Washington returned to his old position. If all had obeyed him, New Jersey would have been taken. Congress at once gave him almost dictatorial powers. From that moment, George Washing-

ton has been statuesque, incomparable, in American minds.

Cornwallis now came out of New York to recapture Trenton. He marched past Princeton, leaving three regiments. He came up with General Washington across a river, as night was falling. Leaving his camp-fires burning on the river, General Washington fell on Princeton, and, himself between the lines, came off unscathed and put the three regiments to flight. The British thought fit to retire to New York and wait for campaigning weather. The American soldiers had left the bloody tracks of their bare feet in the snow. At this price, and on this slight thread of Washington's high resolve, did Liberty depend this winter. The patriotic spirit revived on sight of such personal valor, and men said one to another that they must be led by a prophet.

The exact personal appearance of General Washington at this time has been described. Ackerson commanded a company of patriots. It is three days before crossing the Delaware. Ackerson writes to his son, in 1811: "In military costume, Washington was a heroic figure, such as would impress the memory ever afterward. He had a large thick nose, and it was very red that day, giving me the impression that he was not so moderate in the use of liquors as he was supposed to be. I found afterward that this was a peculiarity. His nose was apt to turn scarlet in a cold wind. He was standing near a small camp-fire, evidently lost in thought, and making no effort to keep warm. He *seemed* six feet and a half in height, was as erect as an Indian, and did not for a moment relax from a military attitude. His *exact* height was six feet two inches in his boots. He was then a little lame from striking his knee against a tree. His eye was so gray that it looked almost white, and he had a troubled look on his colorless face. He had a piece of woollen tied around his throat, and was quite hoarse. Perhaps the throat-trouble from which he finally died had its origin about then. Washington's boots

were enormous. They were number thirteen. His ordinary walking-shoes were number eleven. His hands were large in proportion, and he could not buy a glove to fit him, and had to have his gloves made to order. His mouth was his strong feature, the lips being always tightly compressed. That day they were compressed so tightly as to be painful to look at. At that time he weighed 200 pounds, and there was no surplus flesh about him. He was tremendously muscled, and the fame of his great strength was everywhere. His large tent, when wrapped up with the poles, was so heavy that it required two men to place it in the camp-wagon. Washington would lift it with one hand and throw it in the wagon as easily as if it were a pair of saddle-bags. He could hold a musket with one hand and shoot with precision as easily as other men did with a horse-pistol. His lungs were his weak point, and his voice was never strong. He was at that time in the prime of life. His hair was a chestnut brown, his cheeks were prominent, and his head was not large in contrast to every other part of his body, which seemed large and bony at all points. His finger-joints and wrists were so large as to be genuine curiosities. As to his habits at that period, he was an enormous eater, but was content with bread and meat, if he had plenty of it. But hunger seemed to put him in a rage. It was his custom to take a drink of rum or whisky on awakening in the morning."

Nor had he lost his hot temper, though it was nearly always well under control. He told an officer to cross the river and bring back some information. He was pacing his tent with the flannel on his sore neck when the officer returned. "What did you learn?" The officer related that he had found the night dark and stormy and the river full of ice. Therefore he could not cross; therefore he had learned nothing that General Washington did not know already. The fire flew from Washington's eyes now, and the Chief, uttering an oath, hurled a leaden inkstand at the officers head. "Be off! and send me

a man." The officer found the river very easy to cross, and the storm less furious than the one he had called up. He returned with valuable news.

The New Jersey Building at the World's Fair of 1893 was a replica of the house in Morristown at which General Washington made his headquarters in the early months of 1777. Here the Chief was again compelled to act as a recruiting-officer, a drill-sergeant, so loath were Americans to make war. There were few re-enlistments, and the terms of service were ridiculously short. It was at this house that a horde of foreign officers began to come in on the Commander-in-Chief. In Paris, in 1871, a regiment was made up of officers, but the scheme was unknown in earlier days. Lafayette and Steuben visited him here. General Washington hoped that Howe would go south against Philadelphia; he feared the British Commander might go north and join the forces of General Burgoyne. The enemy did not move till very late in the season, and then came south with 18,000 men, landing from ships in Chesapeake Bay, near Philadelphia. Washington marched his army of 11,000 men through the Quaker City, to meet Sir William Howe, late in August. The two armies met at the Brandywine, and Howe won the battle, Sullivan again being outflanked and driven in, as at Brooklyn. General Wayne led 1,500 men to harass the British rear, and was worsted a day or so later. Howe now took peaceable possession of Philadelphia, and chose ground at Germantown, a suburb. Here General Washington attempted a surprise with about 11,000 men at daybreak, October 4, 1777, and was again defeated, and forced to withdraw; but the enemy did not pursue him. General Washington lost about 1,200 men.

At this sad moment came the cheering news that Burgoyne had surrendered to Gates at Saratoga, with 5,752 soldiers, 39 cannon, and 5,000 stand of arms. Burgoyne had previously lost 3,000 men in various ways. With this, Vergennes, Minister of Foreign Affairs

at Paris, let Franklin know that France was ready to make a treaty of alliance with the United States of America against England. Meanwhile, Howe tried to lure General Washington out to fight him again, but the American Commander could not be drawn out of the hills which he held, and Howe went back into Philadelphia. "Philadelphia has taken Howe," said Dr. Franklin, at Paris.

John Adams, who had urged Gates for a command, seems to have receded from his support of General Washington as soon as Gates succeeded. A cabal, headed by an Irish soldier named Conway, was formed to get Gates in chief command. General Washington would not resign, as the plotters had hoped, although they were able to sting his pride. He wrote Patrick Henry that the brave New Englanders were prompt to fly against Burgoyne, while there was no such stuff in the hearts of the Friends along the Delaware.

While General Washington was building huts at his winter cantonment of Valley Forge, and his men, barefoot, were standing about the fires for lack of blankets to lie down in, the Pennsylvania Legislature, evidently in retaliation, passed a resolution asking him to go on fighting in the winter. At this moment he was compelled to forage on the nearest Quakers for food, so little had they done for his army. He wrote indignantly to Congress, calling its attention to the resolution, and remarking that his army was "occupying a cold bleak hill, and sleeping under frost and snow, without clothes or blankets."

It was not long, however, ere the conduct of the Legislatures became more obedient and helpful to General Washington; the Conway cabal was exposed to the attention of the fighting classes, who at once showed their indignation, and the Commander-in-Chief, with all his misfortunes, was clearly seen to be the hope of the colonies. He set Baron Steuben in charge of drill and discipline; he put Greene in as Quartermaster; he had a better army in the spring than in the autumn before,

and Howe gave way to Clinton in Philadelphia as commander of the British army, which was to be taken as an indorsement of Washington's campaign. Howe had regarded the patriot army as so many fugitives in the hills, who could not be caught, and Clinton did not reverse his policy. The country must be tranquillized in other ways, the English thought. Therefore the spring was lost, talking of peace; then Clinton sent 5,000 men to the West Indies and 3,000 to Florida. He actually reduced himself to 10,000, while General Washington had kept 13,000 together. The effect of the French alliance led the Ministry at London to believe that it would be wise to concentrate nearly all their troops at New York City. Clinton accordingly prepared to evacuate Philadelphia, and General Washington set out to strike him on the rear guard of his army. Lee did not approve the move, because he thought the Continentals ought to build a golden bridge for their enemy to fly by. General Washington put Lafayette in charge; therefore Lee grew jealous and demanded the command, so he was sent out, May 27, 1778, with Generals Wayne and Lafayette under him. He was ordered to strike the rear guard at once; the next day he was sure the British soldiers would defeat his new recruits. He lost so much time that Clinton got his baggage to the front and was able to march Cornwallis with a large force back where they could make a good defense; thus the British advanced on a General (Lee) who had feared all along he was going to be defeated. The subordinate Generals had sent for General Washington in hot haste. But as General Washington came forward he met returning stragglers and then regiments, and then Lee, all in pell-mell retreat. General Washington was in a towering rage, and frightened Lee. He sent Lee to court-martial and dismissal. He rallied Lee's troops, joined the main body to them as it came up, advanced in battle to the field held by Lee in the morning, lay down in possession, and in the morning Clinton was on the march to

New York. This was the battle of Monmouth, where the British lost 500 men in killed and wounded. It increased the belief of the people that Washington was a fighting General, if he had troops that would not flee, and it ruined Lee, who, because he had fought in Europe, had carried many a council-of-war the wrong way.

The rest of 1778 was spent in attending upon the French. General Washington was still plagued with foreign officers. "I do most devoutly wish," he wrote, "that we had not a single foreigner among us except the Marquis de Lafayette." In another letter to the same purpose, General Washington hopes he is somewhat a "citizen of the world." Yet he had near him on his staff, Alexander Hamilton, still more of an anti-Gallican. The Chief was of that proud spirit that accepted aid with sorrow, and could not pledge himself to be grateful. Congress had moved back to Philadelphia. As 1779 grew old, General Washington was in attendance on that body, obtaining pay for mutinous troops, giving advice, deploring the stock-jobbing, gambling, and other concomitants of war. He wishes he "could bring those murderers of our cause, the monopolizers, forestallers, and engrossers, to condign punishment. I would to God some of the most atrocious in each State was hung in gibbets upon a gallows five times as high as the one prepared by Haman." "Idleness, dissipation and extravagance seem to have laid fast hold of the people, and "speculation, speculation and an insatiable thirst for riches seem to have got the better of every other consideration, and almost of every order of men; party disputes and personal quarrels are the great business of the day." He did much letter-writing that autumn and winter while the French fleet was in New England waters, and the American General Gates, in command of Boston-region, was afraid Clinton might strike at him. Savannah had fallen to the English. General Washington, with headquarters at Newburg, set to work to hold the Hudson River

and hem in Clinton, believing that the Hudson was the line that would, if taken by the British, divide the colonies and no other. He wished to send Greene south, but Congress chose Gates, who later was badly defeated, with the French as auxiliaries. The English raided both New England and Virginia, and the Virginian Governor was unable to gather the militia or make a defense.

The spring of 1780 was coming on badly enough, with General Washington bound to hold the Hudson, at least, when the French came to Newport with 5,000 men, and Gates set out to mend things in South Carolina. But General Rochambeau and General Washington did not agree. The Frenchman thought he must wait till more ships came. The summer went on and Gates was fearfully defeated at Camden. The South was lost. Next came the treason of Benedict Arnold, who, to loosen General Washington's grip on the Hudson, had sold West Point, and was about to deliver the stronghold to Major André. General Washington had gone to meet Rochambeau at Hartford. The people had hailed him as FATHER, and their feeling were so affectionate toward him, after coming out of the atmosphere of Valley Forge and the Hudson, that he was in high spirits. Arnold made his hair-breadth escape from the very grasp of General Washington, and, a few minutes later, was on a British man-of-war. "Whom can we trust now?" cried the Chief, and then was silent. He hanged the spy André who had come to get West Point.

The winter of 1780-81 was another Valley Forge of difficulties. Even the American troops rebelled. Pennsylvania made terms with its regiments, but when the New Jersey men followed, General Washington hanged two mutineers. How many more winters the great man would have endured at Newburg cannot be conjectured. His own State was still being ravaged. But Greene, in the South, turned the day,

as Gates had once turned it in the North. By a series of brilliant operations Cornwallis was obliged to march toward the Chesapeake, and all the marauding British parties were massed with him. He was ordered, from London, to establish a base on the Chesapeake, and Clinton, at New York, began to grow jealous of him. General Washington alarmed Clinton into the belief that he was surely to be attacked, so Clinton was not willing to go southward. The French fleet blocked the Chesapeake, and landed 3,000 men under Lafayette. General Washington prepared to strike at Cornwallis, leaving Heath at New York with enough force to keep Clinton on the defensive. Congress took little heart in General Washington's plans, and debated cutting down his army at the moment he was trying to show the French he had an opportunity to win. He could get no money, for the French were just now spending their own appropriations, and seeing that Dutch contractors did not get all the money. While the army of General Washington went by water to Yorktown the General, with Rochambeau, visited Mt. Vernon and Williamsburg. He had been gone six years. Cornwallis was now within strong lines at Yorktown, with a French fleet outside and a larger American army surrounding him. The siege began September 28th. Cornwallis surrendered, October 19, 1781, his ships and seamen to DeGrasse, the French Admiral; his army and impedimenta to General Washington. There were 7,073 of the red-coats whom General Washington took. General Alexander Hamilton distinguished himself in the final assault. As the troops scaled the works General Washington said: "The work is done, and well done. Bring me my horse."

Nothing happened at Newburg while he was away, and Congress grew more compliant. Yet when Vergennes, at Paris, demanded that the man who needed the money (Washington) should disburse the last French subsidy

that Franklin had induced him to bestow, Congress objected, and Franklin had to audit bills, as of yore.

There was one late episode of the war that should be noted. A troop of armed Tories in the British service under one Lippencott had captured an American captain, and hanged him as a traitor to their King. General Washington demanded the surrender of the lynchers. Sir Guy Carleton, in command at New York, refused, but tried Lippencott by court martial, who escaped on a technicality.

In May, 1782, the fears of the democratic-republicans took shape in a letter by Colonel Nicola, representing a large party in the army, reciting the weaknesses, follies and jealousies of Congress, and begging General Washington to assume the dictatorship by force. General Washington's answer was noble and straightforward. He "viewed the letter with abhorrence," "reprehended it with severity." He said, beautifully and truly: "If I am not deceived in the knowledge of myself, you could not have found a person to whom your schemes are more disagreeable."

Nations do not spring full-armed into existence. The land of George Washington was a weakling in its infancy. Long after Yorktown, a newly-recruited regiment had the audacity to again frighten the Quakers and drive Congress out of Philadelphia to Princeton. General Washington put down this mutiny, and was angry, because the upstarts had never seen battle, and he thought—considering how much he had endured from raw troops—that they were imposing even on themselves. The Newburg addresses by the military were of the same order with Nicola's letter, and caused General Washington as much chagrin. Peace came none too soon, for such was the inchoate condition of things that another year of Valley-Forging might have resulted in anarchy.

General Washington's last months with the army were spent in various trips through New York, in advising Congress at Princeton, and in prepar-

ing addresses to Governors and the army. As preparations for the evacuation of New York City progressed, he moved to Harlem, and on November 25, 1783, two long years after Yorktown, accompanied by Governor Clinton, made his entry into the chief city. There had been a conflagration that had destroyed 300 houses while he was gone. He was ready to resign his commission. At Fraunces' Tavern, December 4th, he assembled his officers. Lifting a glass of wine he said: "With a heart full of love and gratitude, I now take leave of you, most devoutly wishing that your latter days may be as prosperous and happy as your former ones have been glorious and honorable." "I shall be obliged," he said, "if each of you will come and take me by the hand." Tears were in his eyes. He said no more, but embraced them one by one, in the fashion of partings in those days. They went with him to the wharf. They felt very lonesome and fatherless when he had disappeared.

He adjusted his accounts at Philadelphia, but charged no salary for all those years. He had disbursed about \$75,000 in all sorts of ways, and much of this he had advanced. He appeared at noon of December 23d before Congress. The members were seated, with hats on, to represent the sovereign power. The spectators stood, uncovered. The President of the Congress stated that the United States, in Congress assembled, were prepared to receive the communication of General Washington. He then rose and read his farewell, the noblest document recording the deeds of men. He drew his spectacles, saying, "You see, I have grown old in your service." He submitted his resignation and asked to be retired to private life, his country being no longer harassed by considerable foes. His resignation was accepted, he walked out of the hall, and the group of law-makers once more looked about them and found everybody small but him; there was even no elder brother to guide them.

His trustful leaving of the service of the new nation at the time it had

shaken off Great Britain was typical of his grand and simple nature. But nothing was less likely than that he could be spared. The people had heard he was extremely desirous to see a Union of States well established, and they now set out to do as he had advised them. They thought the Chief must be left a time in peace. How did he pass his time meanwhile? Lafayette sent him a pack of French wolf-hounds, but there was no hunting. Still he was in the saddle a good deal, thinking. Every painter and historian visited Mt. Vernon. The great man found he must have a secretary. He went to see his mother and she blessed him. Then he rode away to the Ohio. He came back and wrote letters, showing his extreme solicitude. "My sentiments and opinions have been neglected," he says, "though given as a last legacy, in a most solemn manner." Thereat the people, after he had once more advised, hastened to attempt the institution of some central offices and powers. A Constitutional Convention was called. General Washington pleaded illness, but went as a delegate for Virginia to Philadelphia. The bells rang when he arrived. The Convention met. He was installed as President of the body. After four months of labor, on September 17, 1787, he affixed his signature to the present Constitution of the United States, saying: "Should the States reject this excellent Constitution, the probability is that opportunity will never be offered to cancel another in peace; the next will be drawn in blood."

General Washington went back to Mt. Vernon urging the adoption of the Constitution; urging the election of Federalists, or Constitution men, and therefore the Constitution was adopted and the Federalists were elected. There was to be a President, and that office had been fitted to his stature. The Chief had not asked the people to make anybody else President, so there was no vote for anybody else. Unhappy the Elector who would have so humiliated his people as to put a slight on that sanctified and anointed hero, patient as the sphinx, unpretentious as the solid

monuments of the furthest ages.

General Washington made a splendid progress to take the Presidency of the United States. His barge to New York City was rowed by thirteen white uniformed pilots. The great harbor gave him no mean or unbeautiful welcome. The crowds not only uncovered, but bowed as their hero went by, in the beloved buff and blue uniform.

On the 30th of April, 1789, in citizen's clothes, he appeared before the Congress, took the oath, and kissed the Bible. The Chancellor who had sworn him cried, "Long live George Washington, President of the United States!" The new President said: "In our progress toward political happiness, my station is new;" therefore the people might have seen he did not intend to be king. Yet his own peculiar personality demanded some arrangement that it would have tasked Jefferson to concede. As President he shook hands with nobody. He returned no calls. He would have felt easier as "His Highness" by salutation, because he thought he held a sublime office. The French Ambassador expected to be intimate, but the President compelled him to wait on Jefferson, the Secretary of State. Washington could be no more a friend now of France than of King George. Yet the Chief was glad to appoint Jefferson, pupil of Rousseau and Samuel Adams. How did Washington come to appoint an opponent of Hamilton? Jefferson supported the Constitution—that was the reason; those patriots who did not (before it was adopted) were left out of the Cabinet. All the Supreme Court was to be named—all Constitution men, Federalists, John Jay at the head. The President traveled to Boston, to dine with John Hancock, Governor. The Governor did not call, as he should have done. The President prepared to leave Boston. Then Hancock, in flannel sheets, gouty to the death, had to be carried up a pair of stairs—had to beg for a half-hour to make his call. This precedent soon became doctrine—namely, that in the United States the President, representing all the people, outranks everybody else.

When Congress came together January 4, 1790, in New York City, the President approached the hall in the following state: A Colonel and a Major on two white horses; the President, alone, in his own coach, drawn by four horses; his chariot with his private secretaries; a man on horseback; in three coaches, the Chief Justice, the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Treasury (Jefferson absent, not approving this panopoly). In the Senate Chamber the President, with his retinue, passed between all the Congressmen and Senators, who stood. He was seated beside the Vice-President (John Adams). He rose and spoke. This was the way the President's Message was first delivered. He departed at once, as he had come. It will be seen that this was exactly as he went to Boston—in such state as befitted his personal station. The people, too, saw no harm in it, so lovingly do they trust great leaders, so fortunately did they confide in George Washington.

President Washington put down the Whisky Rebellion and had Indian wars out in (what is now) Indiana. It would be the logical act of the new nation to ally itself with France against the oppressor, but Washington was by connection with Lord Fairfax, an English gentleman. When England and France again went to war, it therefore came to pass that the President fell slightly out of harmony with the American people, and for the first time (that is, when George Washington could be seen) they looked affectionately toward Thomas Jefferson, who had written the Declaration of Independence. Now the Chief seemed clearly wrong. There could be no mistake, they thought. He was catering to the British, and ill-treating Citizen Genet, Ambassador from France (not Vergennes' France, not even from Lafayette's France, but from Robespierre's France!—for there had been an awful set of changes there). How much sympathy had the Chief for the man who slew Vergniaud, Brissot, not to speak of the bad sense of slaying the King and Queen of France? Citizen

Genet came on like Fouché at Lyons or Carrier at Nantes. "Make way for Liberty, Equality, Fraternity!" he cried. "Organize Jacobin clubs, wear red caps, above all attend our admiralty court, set up here at Charleston, where we bestow prizes and fit privateers!" Behold Citizen Genet, carrying Equality or Death to George Washington! This was perhaps one of the most grotesque things in history. At first, of course, Jefferson was in close touch with the Ambassador from France; then frantic with disgust. George Washington, too, was wise in asking Jefferson to himself send away Genet. Especially, when Citizen Genet announced that he would call an election of the people to vote on President Washington. By the time Citizen Genet had been recalled at Jefferson's demand, he did not dare to go back to France. He thereupon became a quiet and inoffensive inhabitant of America. He was weary. He did General Washington a monstrous wrong with his red flag and red night-cap. Jay was burned in effigy, Hamilton was stoned, there was a town-meeting in Faneuil Hall against the President's signature to the English treaty made by Jay, and much excitement in the nation. George Washington dated a letter, "United States, July 28, 1795." He said he was doing his duty. He said, at last, that he was preparing his "mind for the obloquy that disappointment and malice" were collecting to heap on him. Again, he could not support James Monroe at Paris, and once more went against the people's ideas of liberty. They could not understand that he was a truer friend of forceful Liberty than had ever lived, or perhaps ever would live again, nor could Monroe, so when Washington recalled him from France there remained one more triumph in store for those (not Jefferson and Monroe) who envied George Washington because nature had made him grand and simple. At last it is possible that Jacobin editors thought they would do well to write scurrilous articles about "the tyrant Washington," and they took up Jefferson's and Genet's cry of "Monarchists,"

"Aristocrats," and "corrupt squadrons," the latter being Jefferson's way of attacking Hamilton's financial legislation. One editor said Washington "maintained the seclusion of a monk and the supercilious distance of a tyrant." At last the House of Congress refused to adjourn on his birthday for half an hour, in order that members might call on him and pay their respects. But the nation was now made. It had been founded. It had elected him twice trustingly, it would elect him again, but it allowed editors to ungenerously assail him. He clearly saw his work was done. He prepared his farewell address once more, but this time without tears. Yet, out of the wealth of his love of America, he offered the people another legacy from the treasury of a freeman's advice: "Let there be no sectionalism, no North, South, East or West. Beware of attacks, open or covert, upon the Constitution. Do not encourage party spirit. Promote education, avoid debt. As a nation, have neither passionate hatreds (of England) nor passionate attachments (to France)."

March 3, 1797, he gave a farewell dinner to President John Adams, Vice-President Jefferson, and other high officers. Compared with the leave-taking from his Generals at New York, where he had been obeyed, his manner now to the statesmen who had underestimated him was joyous. He was glad to leave one and all. But they were not merry. They, again, were lonesome. The next day, this phenomenon was to be recorded, namely: The people took back their own into the great body of private life, and yet there were eyes for nobody else. The hall was nearly emptied when General Washington went out; a multitude followed him to his lodgings. And when he saw this once more, he turned and bowed very low, and tears were in his eyes, for the personal trust and love of the people rewarded him and exalted him in spirit.

Beside the fact that President Adams made him Commander-in-Chief of the provincial army again, there were episodes in his life at Mt. Vernon, but

the casual reader need not be wearied with their recital. Yet it cannot perhaps be amiss to look in on him once with the eyes of the actor Bernard.

Bernard, on horseback, riding near Alexandria, came on an overturned chaise which had carried a man and woman; she was unconscious; the man was unhurt; at the same time another horseman rode up. "The horse was now on his legs, but the vehicle still prostrate, heavy in its frame, and laden with at least half a ton of luggage. My fellow-helper set me an example of activity in relieving it of the internal weight; and when all was clear we grasped the wheel between us, and to the peril of our spinal columns, righted the conveyance. The horse was then put in and we lent a hand to help up the luggage. All this helping, hauling and lifting occupied at least half an hour, under a meridian sun, in the middle of July, which fairly boiled the perspiration out of our foreheads." The chaise went on, after the usual Virginian proffer of civilities. "Then my companion offered very courteously to dust my coat, a favor the return of which enabled me to take deliberate survey of his person. He was a tall, erect, well-made man, evidently advanced in years, but who appeared to have retained all the vigor and elasticity resulting from a life of temperance and exercise. His dress was a blue coat buttoned to his chin and buckskin breeches. Though the instant he took off his hat I could not avoid the recognition of familiar lineaments, which, indeed, I was in the habit of seeing on every sign-post and over every fireplace, still I failed to identify him, and to my surprise I found that I was an object of equal speculation in his eyes. 'Mr. Bernard, I believe,'" and asked Bernard to go on to his house, now in sight. "'Mt. Vernon!' I exclaimed; and then drawing back with a stare of wonder, 'Have I the honor of addressing General Washington?' With a smile whose expression of benevolence I have rarely seen equaled, he offered his hand and replied: 'An odd sort of introduction, Mr. Bernard;

but I am pleased to find you can play so active a part in private, and without a prompter.' ”

General Washington had seen Bernard act. This charming host was the same person who, when President, as President, would not shake hands with anybody. They went on, and had a pleasant chat. “His eyes burned with a steady fire”—they looked “glorious” to Bernard, who seems to have been a man not easily dazzled.

When the Bastile was taken, Lafayette sent its great key to General Washington. It hangs at Mt. Vernon. When Lafayette went to an Austrian dungeon, General Washington shed tears. He educated young Lafayette.

December 13, 1799, General Washington had a sore throat, as of old on the Delaware. The next day he was choking to death, and died where such cases are to-day successfully treated by the surgeons. His death was without pompous utterance. He said it was the debt we must all pay, was anxious to leave his affairs in good shape, and kept his mind on the estate of Mt. Vernon to the last. He died childless. They said, who had escaped slavery by his sword, that he was the father only of his history. His home, where he died, Mt. Vernon, has been visited by every lover of liberty and admirer of greatness who has journeyed toward the Chesapeake. For over forty years it has been a museum of national character. The State of Virginia, to familiarize its form to the entire nation, copied it for headquarters at the World's Fair of 1893, and the building was always overcrowded.

One critical question may be asked: What did the Father and the Chief think of Benjamin Franklin? He said to Bernard, that day, after exploiting the New Englanders, as if to settle it all, “Dr. Franklin is a New Englander.” He looked on Dr. Franklin with the veneration that he paid to science and to all things good. He thought Dr. Franklin was one of the few helpful civilians in the war, and loved him for his aid. When he went to the Constitutional

Convention, his first act was to call on Dr. Franklin to pay his respects.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

1706—1790

GRANDSIRE OF THE REVOLUTION.

It is perhaps the chief boast of the proud City of Boston that Benjamin Franklin was born there, on Milk street, near the corner of Washington. His statue has the place of honor before the City Hall. The date of birth was January 17, 1706. The father had seventeen children by two wives, and Benjamin was the eighth of ten children by the second wife. His mother was a Folger, and he took his characteristics from her and her father. He desired to be a sailor; his father wished him to be a preacher. They could not agree, and the father, as a medium course, set the son at work in a tallow chandler's factory. To escape from this fate Benjamin suffered himself to be bound to his brother James as a printer's apprentice for a term of nine years. James was an editor, and angered the press censor. To evade the censor, the newspaper was published under the name of Benjamin Franklin, the old indenture of apprenticeship was annulled, and a secret one was substituted. Thereupon the apprentice felt safe in running away—perhaps safer, for he says in his celebrated autobiography that although a lad of only seventeen years, he was already “a little obnoxious to the governing party,” as his “indiscreet disputations about religion” had caused him to be pointed at with horror by good people as an infidel and atheist.” He found no situation at New York, and passed on to Philadelphia. A good printer who had escaped five years of bondage need not feel uneasy, and, buying three rolls of bread, he walked up Market street as far as Fourth, with a roll under each arm and munching a third. A passage in his autobiography tends to show that little Boston

and not practice the gentility of the great City of Philadelphia, for he says: "I passed by the door of Mr. Read, my future wife's father; when she, standing by the door, saw me, and thought I made, as I certainly did, a most awkward, ridiculous appearance."

He soon got work and became acquainted with Sir William Keith, who was Governor of the Province of Pennsylvania for the two sons of William Penn, who owned the charter. Keith persuaded Franklin to go back to Boston and try to get his father to invest the capital necessary for a newspaper at Philadelphia. But the son's luxurious appearance on his return to Boston did not move the father of seventeen children, who would not invest, and thought Keith must be a foolish man. Keith then advised Benjamin to go to London, England, choose a "dress" and outfit, and Keith would himself furnish the funds. Keith would seem to have had a secret desire to get Franklin out of Philadelphia, and therein he was certainly a good servant of the Penns, as events proved. Franklin got on board a vessel, still waiting for his bill of exchange, and went to sea before he really knew he had been deceived. Even then he did not lament his fate, but set out to see the world at London, and was a wild young man for some time. Finally he reformed, became a teetotaler for life, and was again able to interest rich gentlemen in his welfare. A Philadelphia merchant offered to take him back as confidential clerk, and the twain sailed home, reaching Philadelphia October 11, 1726. But the merchant and the young printer were both seized with illness, and the benefactor died. Benjamin Franklin, at twenty, was so sick that he thought he would die, and prepared his epitaph, now so famous:

THE BODY OF
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN
(LIKE THE COVER OF AN OLD BOOK,
ITS CONTENTS TORN OUT,
AND STRIP OF ITS LETTERING AND GILDING),
LIES HERE, FOOD FOR WORMS.
YET THE WORK ITSELF SHALL NOT BE LOST,
FOR IT WILL APPEAR ONCE MORE, AS HE BELIEVED,
IN A NEW AND MORE BEAUTIFUL EDITION,
CORRECTED AND AMENDED
BY
THE AUTHOR

Bradford and Keimer were the rival printers in the city. It was Keimer whom Franklin had worked for. Bradford was Postmaster, and naturally hated Franklin as Keimer's man. When Franklin started in business for himself with a partner, he had both the old men bitterly against him; but Keimer soon sold out. Then Bradford would not let his postmen carry Franklin's paper, which was eventually called the Pennsylvania Gazette. Franklin was a consummate editor. Richard Steele, the earliest of editors, knew nothing about advertisements and a job office, but Franklin regarded these adjuncts as mainsail and rudder to his ship. He was an advocate of paper money, and worked so hard for the cause that he secured the job of printing the currency. It was a Quaker town, and Franklin soon put on sober garments (which he wore all his life afterward), and let the wise Philadelphians know that he was saving money. He now offered to marry a young woman if her parents could dower her with \$500, and "civilly suggested a mortgage" on the paternal mansion for the purpose. This negotiation failed. But in these recitals at the expense of Franklin, made in his Autobiography at the height of his fame, we must somewhat consider the tendency to humor, for which the writer would sacrifice many attending circumstances. He says he made other ineffectual advances on a commercial basis before he thought of the young woman he saw when he first arrived in Philadelphia. By this time she was divorced from a husband. She would marry Franklin, but he, instead of receiving a dower, might be compelled to pay the runaway husband's debts. It seems that by this time Franklin's marital self-importance had dwindled, and he was contented to run all risks, if, in his turn, he could bring home his natural son William. The daughter of Mr. Read and Benjamin Franklin were thereupon married September 1, 1730. The wife took the child William and nursed it as her own (William turning out in the end a Tory, who hated his father

as the arch-rebel). Beside this good nature, the wife clothed her husband, head to foot. These affairs he told, revealing the perfect knowledge which Franklin, as author, possessed, touching the likes and dislikes of humanity.

He now began to practice some of the metropolitan arts of diplomacy that had operated so effectually upon himself in Boston Philadelphia and London. He learned, he says, that he could do almost anything he thought to be feasible if he would go about saying "a number of his acquaintances had asked him to forward the project." In precisely this way, he says, a number of his acquaintances were desirous that he should start a subscription library, and the first American enterprise of this kind had its origin. But it soon followed that a considerable body of best people would gladly indorse almost any public act of Franklin, for he was a valuable and enterprising citizen.

The rôle of frugality was kept up in the issue of "Poor Richard's Almanac," which was printed for twenty-five years, and ran in circulation as high as 10,000 copies. It was a literature fitted to oak and hickory openings, log-piles, charcoal kilns, worm-fences, and the battle with rugged nature. "Keep thy shop and thy shop will keep thee." "Plough deep while sluggards sleep." "Three removes are as bad as a fire." "There never was a good war or a bad peace." "He had paid dear, very dear, for his whistle." "Do not squander time, for that is the stuff life is made of." No man's shaving-cup was in fashion without a maxim of Franklin illustrated upon its outside. No book presented to a child was wisely given until it carried an inscription on a fly-leaf of one of Poor Richard's sayings. The name first adopted was "Richard Saunders." This Almanac was one of the great things accomplished by Franklin. He fitted a literature to the axe, the saw, the splint, the log-house. He was one of the greatest moral law-givers of the ages, and succeeded among a people who daily held the Bible in their hands. Many of his sayings are supposed to

be Bible doctrine by the devout. He has but one exemplar in modern times—Jean Jacques Rousseau. He finally adopted Rousseau's religion of a Supreme Being, first, however, coming out of a state of atheism.

The young husband, editor, librarian, etc., was about six years making his way into politics. He studied French, Italian and Spanish, he formed debating circles, and, as his newspaper was powerful, he was given the office of Clerk of the General Assembly in 1736, and added to it the Postmastership in 1737. One might now suppose that such a young man, so well supplied with office, would lose all notion of reform and become the most pliant subject the Penns could have in the colony. Yet we shall eventually see a long memory in Benjamin Franklin, and it is not impossible that, in all this time, he was only waiting to pay off the score of the London wild-goose chase on which Keith had once sent him. He took no small revenges. He could have boycotted Bradford's newspaper, but he let it go out with the rest of the mail.

He invented a stove, which he called "the Pennsylvania fireplace." This was the first of the easily-portable fireplaces, which have mitigated the terrors of the North American winter ever since. He did not patent it. A London manufacturer took out a patent and made money. Franklin studied nitrates and phosphates. His theory that plaster of paris was a fertilizer was doubted. He therefore wrote, in a field with plaster, "This has been plastered." The brilliant green and superior height of the growing crop were seen to be an ingenious demonstration of the truth of his argument.

He had by this time thrown off or outworn all the ill effects of his early foibles. He had succeeded in getting the University of Pennsylvania under weigh, but was not a director. The Board was composed of one representative of each sect that had contributed funds. The Moravian director died, and his colleagues agreed to have no more Moravians. "On this," says

Franklin, "I was mentioned as being merely an honest man, and of no sect at all." This betrays his favorite form of humor—not without a sting, too. He organized the first fire brigade in America. On a panic resulting from a belief that the French and Indians would attack the colony, Franklin went to New York to borrow money, and prepared for a lottery, all of which found him friends, even among the Quakers. It seems true that the people like a man who takes an interest in their affairs with a collateral view of not making himself any the poorer; that man is disliked who attends strictly to his own business; while the man is pitied and finally denounced who impoverishes himself in behalf of the public. Franklin had been eighteen years a married man, twelve years a public functionary with several salaries, twenty-two years an editor and job-printer, when he concluded the time had come to cease acquiring money, as a main ambition. In this resolution and in his subsequent career, he has ever since commanded the enthusiastic applause of the world. He therefore took for partner David Hall, a journeyman printer, and hoped to give all his time to philosophy. But the community which he had so ingeniously cultivated for a quarter century, now in its turn, showed him a little of the wisdom of the world itself. If he were a man of leisure, there could be no injustice in making him a commissioner of the peace; also an alderman; likewise a Burgess in the Assembly. And here, too, the really good man found it a greater pleasure to be himself wrought on, than to work others to his advantage. A passage in his Autobiography at this stage in his career purrs with so much satisfaction that the world has long enjoyed it. Dr. Bond wanted to found his hospital: "At length," says the venerable Doctor Franklin, "he came to me, with the compliment that he found there was no such thing as carrying a public-spirited project through without my being concerned in it. 'For,' says he, 'I am often asked by those to whom I propose subscribing, Have you consulted Franklin

upon this business? And what does he think of it? And when I tell them that I have not (supposing it rather out of your line), they do not subscribe, but say they will consider it.'" "It is surprising," comments Morse, with charming wit, "that this artful and sugar-tongued doctor, who evidently could read his man, had not been more successful with his subscription list. With Franklin, at least, he was eminently successful, touching him with a consummate skill, which brought prompt response and co-operation." He was a busy man in the Council, with new pavements, street lamps, and street-sweepings. He next, with William Hunter, farmed the post-offices, and made so much money that the Crown at home thought the place worth giving out to some Englishman, whereupon it ceased to pay expenses, which did not displease the complacent Benjamin Franklin. This matter of the post-office of the colonies, and the visits to New York, and above all, the Pennsylvania Gazette, had spread his fame, and Yale and Harvard Universities both found it prudent to make him a Master of Arts. "Thus, without studying in any college, I came to partake of their honors. They were conferred in consideration of my improvements and discoveries in the electric branch of natural philosophy."

Let us behold this busy Quaker about this time, or a year or so earlier. He was pouring, as editorials, into the backwoods, articles which read well to-day—masterpieces of convincing legible English; he was beginning hospitals, libraries, university, lottery, armory, fire department, night watch, street lights, pavements; he was reforming the post-office, studying the peace, the Indians, making laws for the Assembly—bringing London's customs over to the colony—and, as a recreation, he began to debate the phenomena of electrified bodies—two kinds of electricity, or two exhibitions of its influence. He set the world talking of positive and negative currents, and Franklin's Pane. The people, even in the backwoods, read his scientific articles, and they affected the

professors as Dr. Röntgen's discoveries did in 1896. He noted the potentiality of points—how the point of anything was more electric than its body. He, with other philosophers, believed the thunder-clouds were sometimes giving down electricity, at other times sucking it up—as the photograph has since shown. He waited a long time for a projected church-spire to be built, and it is a wonder he did not, in true Franklinian method, go around with subscription paper to get the temple in order to use the steeple. Presently he bethought himself of the kite. He made a kite of a cross of cedar sticks and a thin silk handkerchief. A tail and string were attached, and, out of the top of the cross, a sharp-pointed wire was made to project a foot or more from the wood. The string ended at the earth in the ring or handle of a door-key, and to this ring a silk ribbon was also tied, so that the electricity would not come down beyond the key without meeting great resistance. Now, he had to wait for the first thunder-storm, as he had waited for the steeple, but it came in June of 1750. His son helped him to get the kite to fly. As it was raining, he must stand inside a door to keep the silk dry, so it would resist—he did not know and could not then guess how much electricity might come down, and he might get killed. The clouds rolled by, but his key was not emitting lightning, as he expected. Finally, however, when the string became wet, the electric spark came. He set alcohol aflame, charged a storage-battery, and made all the demonstrations which had formerly been performed only with natural or carefully-electrified bodies. At his next thunder-storm, he demonstrated the positive and negative action of clouds, and perfected the theory of the lightning-rod. These matters took the general name of "The Philadelphia experiments." Kant called Franklin "the Prometheus of modern times." The action of the colonial universities was perhaps their first opportunity to honor a colonist who had won world-wide attention. The mother country was last

to recognize the value of the demonstrations, and the English scientists were compelled, several years after everybody else, to correct their proceedings by reprinting old matter and getting a record at any expense to their pride.

In 1754 the Lords of Trade at London ordered an Assembly of the Colonies at Albany to confer with the Six Indian Nations, in order to prepare for war with France. At Albany Franklin, who was a delegate, prepared a scheme for the union of the colonies. "Its fate was singular," says Franklin, reflectively; "in the colonial assemblies it was condemned because there was too much prerogative (King's power) in it. The Board of Trade in England scouted it because it had too much of the democratic." Here we see Benjamin Franklin penning the first formal document looking to the United States of America. This was June 24, 1754, a little over twenty-two years before the Declaration of Independence. Already the Home Government, doubtless inspired by the Penn brothers at London, looked upon the colonists as people who were too outspoken. Accordingly, instead of calling into service an army of natives, who might become dangerous enemies, General Braddock, with his regular army, was sent to fight the Indians and French. When this high-spirited commander came near to the Quakers' country, they were alarmed, and sent their ablest man, Benjamin Franklin, to eat and chat with him. Here the philosopher first met Colonel Washington. The result of Franklin's mission was highly peaceful. The Pennsylvania farmers were to hire out wagons, horses, and drivers to Braddock, receiving seven days' pay in advance. The people, however, made Franklin sign a bond. Braddock's defeat swallowed up \$100,000 worth of this kind of impedimenta. Franklin was on the bond, and got off, only with some loss and a thorough alarm. He now became Colonel Franklin, and went on west to build three forts. The region of Pittsburg had then seen two Colonels—George Washington and

Benjamin Franklin—on whom the independence of the United States entirely depended, although in two entirely different ways. It is to be said to the testy Braddock's credit, that he admired both his aides.

This war made additional expense. The two Penns owned a landed corporation in which there were now 200,000 white inhabitants to whom land had been sold in fee simple. The Penns appointed the Governor. This Governor received his salary from the Assembly, but he had to give bond to the Penns that he would keep their income (about \$100,000 a year) intact by preserving the legal status quo. If he did not veto obnoxious measures he must pay in cash the cost to the Penns. Under the charter, their waste lands were untaxable. It was the habit of the Quakers to call themselves poor and industrious; the Penns rich and indolent. They made such complaint that out of \$300,000 to be raised for the year of the war, the Penns voluntarily contributed \$30,000. But dissatisfaction grew. Franklin had cultivated this spirit assiduously. At last he was sent, with his son as secretary, to London, to pray that the king reassume the charter (as he could do, on payment of money) in order that Pennsylvania might no longer remain the fief of absentee landlords. England, meanwhile, was becoming jealous of the colonial assemblies, and Parliament had recently passed resolutions hostile to the intent of Franklin's mission. The Penns awaited their enemy with no regret. He came on to certain defeat.

Yet, in a word, the rest of Franklin's long life-work was to lie on that side of the water, and because he could not carry back news of a king's charter, he went elsewhere, and finally returned home with a treaty acknowledging the first considerable democratic republic of modern times.

Franklin was five years upon his first errand. Lord Granville, Prime Minister, when the Pennsylvanian arrived, lectured him well as the representative of seditious subjects, who could not loyally understand that the king had

deputed his royal power to the Penns. The Penns' lawyer at London was so angry already with the astute Philadelphian that it was soon unsafe to let him come near the man of peace. William Pitt was too busy to see the unknown agent of disgruntled colonists, and Franklin, when he landed, found that reputation among professors of physics did not carry him far through the ante-rooms of the nobles whom he must conciliate. The Ministers told him his people must not export grain or cattle to starving Frenchmen on the American Continent, and Franklin reiterated that the king, if that were to be law, would do well to send transports from England to bring back his unhappy subjects. The Penns sent word to the Philadelphia Assembly to displace this Franklin, who was "rude," but the provincial Assembly retorted by levying the tax on waste lands. The Lords at last passed the order that the Penns desired, but Franklin, humble as he was, managed in some way to get it reviewed, whereupon an almost exactly opposite mandate issued from the same quarter. At the end of three years he had secured the recognition of the principle that the Penns ought to pay their proportion of the expense of protection against common dangers that threatened the settlers. The king, however, would not take up the charter.

As time went by Franklin got acquainted with Hume, Burke, Robertson, Kames, and Adam Smith. Honor was paid to him at Edinburgh. The University of St. Andrews and the University of Oxford made him a Doctor of Laws, and he ever bore this title. His wife was afraid to cross the ocean, and it is possible that this fact alone prevented him from making his home in the mother country, as many flattering invitations were extended to him. Writers on the Revolution always stop at this point to exalt Mrs. Franklin's patriotic horror of the deep.

It stands to reason that all Dr. Franklin's scientific and social successes with the Edinburgh scholars, and whatever triumphs he had scored against the Penns, were one and all duly ex-

ploited in the columns of the Franklin newspaper at home, while Bradford and the Penns, in their turn, faithfully called attention to the small value attached to such glory. They did this latter so well that Dr. Franklin did not expect the flattering reception which awaited him on his return to Philadelphia. He found himself doubly celebrated. He had seen Europe, and yet was a colonist. He was the only colonist who had made an impression on the Old Country. His house was full of callers from morning to night. The Assembly voted him \$15,000 for his five years' expenses. His son William was appointed Governor of New Jersey by the English Government. This made many enemies for Franklin; particularly, for one, the son himself, who became a loyal subject of the king and drew a pension long after his duties as British Governor had ceased to be required. The old families denounced the act of their Government as a truckling to demagoguery, and a defiance of morality. It did nobody any good except the younger Franklin.

Dr. Franklin was now fifty-six years old, and it was well along in 1762. He next traveled 1,600 miles, inspecting postoffices, and thereafter became imbroiled in a serious local Indian trouble. The Penns had sent over as Governor a nephew, and, for a while, this nephew, named Penn, had gotten along under Dr. Franklin's own tutelage. A reckless gang of outlaws, known as "the Paxton boys," massacred an Indian village, and marched on Philadelphia to demand the surrender of certain Indian refugees that had fled thither. In ending this affair Dr. Franklin took the front place, the Governor staying at Dr. Franklin's house. Dr. Franklin went forth among the outlaws alone, and argued them into a peaceful settlement. But it ended somewhat to the discomfiture of the peacemaker, and, after Penn had become alienated, the anti-Franklin political forces agreed that the time had come to oust him from the Assembly. Accordingly an exciting political campaign was waged, and an election was

held, in which the lame, the halt, the sick, were brought to the polls and Dr. Franklin was beaten by a few votes. Scarcely were the rejoicings of the "loyalists" over when the old question reasserted itself—that his majesty ought to rule his colony through his Assembly, and Dr. Franklin was again mentioned as the only fit person to be Agent to go to London. Dickinson made a fervent speech against "this man, most obnoxious to his country," but it turned out that Dr. Franklin's enemies had gotten the best of him only by concentrating in his district, and he, popular at large, was easily elected Agent. He started for England in twelve days. A troop of 300 mounted citizens rode sixteen miles down the river with him, and when news of his safe arrival in England reached Philadelphia the colonists kept the bells ringing till midnight. He settled in London in December, 1764.

The Seven Years' War to retrieve Silesia from Frederick the Great was over. England had paid vast sums of money on each side of the question, and must recoup with new taxes. What was there new to tax? The colonies in America. George Grenville, in the Treasury Department, had the same views as Lord Granville. Accordingly, the Stamp bill was steadily grinding its way into law at the Parliament buildings. Dr. Franklin was not slow to file expressions of repugnance, which were as rapidly filed in the waste-paper departments of his majesty's government. He looked ruefully on the power of the mother country, and her obvious ill-will toward her American children. When Americans called on him he said significantly: "Go home and tell your countrymen to get children as fast as they can." But he did not believe men in America would be so "foolhardy" as to defy England. At this time, he lacked a knowledge of European politics and French influence.

The Stamp law, which passed in 1765, was merely a new Tariff act, worse than the old one. The old law compelled the colonies to restrict their exports entirely to England. No for-

eign ship could enter a colonial harbor. No ship, boat or carriage could cross a colonial boundary line with wool on board. A British sailor, in colonial ports, could only buy to the extent of \$5 in woolens. No Bible could be printed in America. The making of hats was seriously discouraged by legal restrictions. Iron forges were prohibited as "nuisances". The slave trade was encouraged. To these inhibitions against the manufacture and sale of goods, the Home Government now added the Stamp Tax, to make purchases equally troublesome. A duty was to be collected on nearly everything that was bought abroad. If there should be infractions or disobedience, a court of vice-admiralty, without a jury and with a single judge was to deal forth severe penalties, both fine and imprisonment. While the sparse population, the town meetings, and the frequent petty elections in America had cultivated a disputatious spirit, it must be admitted that they now had plenty to complain of. The excitement at Boston, under the agitation of James Otis and Samuel Adams, was intense. Yet Dr. Franklin had not the shadow of a suspicion that the Stamp Act was the last straw on the camel's back. When Grenville asked him to nominate a good man for Revenue Agent at Philadelphia, he unhesitatingly named Hughes, and Hughes was appointed. This, the Ministry took care to state, was on the motion of Dr. Franklin.

The Stamp Act exploded in America like a bomb. A mob started for the new house in which Dr. Franklin had left his wife in Philadelphia. Bradford's newspaper had a picture of the devil whispering in Dr. Franklin's ear: "Ben, you shall be my agent throughout my dominions." It is clear that Dr. Franklin's absence from America had in this case bereft him of all prophetic instincts. Yet his constant good fortune saved him from ruin. He was as yet on the safe side. His recall would have been an act of rebellion, and he himself might have been appointed Governor or Judge. The great boycott of English goods

which the colonies one and all set up was the most convincing of arguments to Englishmen, and soon their own quarrels led the English politicians to take sides on "the American troubles," with Pitt laying down as common law that the settlers could not be taxed without their consent. In the Parliamentary hearings for repeal of the Stamp Act, Dr. Franklin appeared, and, as soon as his testimony could be published in America, his position was seen to be safe and patriotic. He even tickled the ears of the poorest patriots at home by saying: "I have some little property in America, but I will freely spend nineteen shillings in the pound to defend my right of giving or refusing the other shilling. And, after all, if I cannot defend that right, I can retire cheerfully with my family into the boundless woods of America, which are sure to afford freedom and subsistence to any man who can bait a hook or pull a trigger." Dr. Franklin was by this time a wonderful diner-out, an American lion, a boon companion at the coffee-houses. America, instead of Frederick, was the fashion, and the Doctor knew the fashionable subject of America better than any other colonist. It was known that Dr. Franklin was no agitator of the kind that had arisen out of the dragons'-teeth sown by the Stamp Act. His firm statement that the colonies had begun a boycott which they could keep up, and that England's course, if continued, would cut off its own market, acted with force on British merchants, now thoroughly alarmed, and they surrounded the Parliament House when, on February 21, 1766, the Stamp act was repealed, showing their influence. The King unwillingly signed the repeal a little later. News of the repeal was received in Philadelphia with rejoicings. Each colony indulged in the fancy that its own refractory course had alarmed the King, and a barge or float forty feet long named Franklin paraded the streets of Philadelphia, firing salutes and driving away all recollections of the great man's sad connection with Hughes, the satrap of the oligarchy.

In the early stages of the Revolution, the Assemblies of the colonies were jealous only of Parliament. They desired "to govern with the King." We are now reaching the point where George III was to be regarded as a tyrant. Dr. Franklin was still Deputy Postmaster-General of the Colonies, his son was Governor of New Jersey (King's man), his tastes were becoming metropolitan. He was beset by small enviers like Arthur Lee, who craved his office as Agent, and yet he was held in an esteem so high that each side of almost any controversy desired to reckon him in its party. Nobody but the King could really see that Dr. Franklin was the worst rebel of them all—not even Samuel Adams, who looked on Dr. Franklin with patriotic suspicion. Samuel Adams was so far above selfish common sense—he was so firm a believer in altruism—that he could not understand the natures of patient, tactical, provident men like Dr. Franklin and General Washington. And it took all kinds of patriots to found the United States of America.

From 1766 until 1773 was a period in which Dr. Franklin was strengthening his personal power. Few students of social forces have lived who could so soon lay hold upon the sources of power in society; and had England possessed a king like Frederick of Prussia, Dr. Franklin would have been the royal favorite. His son in New Jersey readily secured the New Jersey agency at London for the father, and Georgia also sent credentials to Dr. Franklin. When Massachusetts Bay came to think of putting the Assembly's interests in charge of Dr. Franklin there was bitter opposition by Samuel Adams. Thus when the Massachusetts agency was added to the dignities of Dr. Franklin, it came with the blighting fact that the very greatest of the American seditionaries opposed such a commission. Still it was Dr. Franklin's good fortune that the opposition of Samuel Adams gave the pleasant elderly Quaker so much the better standing at London. He had need of a Toryish

reputation, for the Ministers now in power and coming into power were vindictive foes of America, and highly distrustful of even the most placid of patriots. Townshend, the original suggester of taxes, was next in office, with George III highly satisfied to hear him speak. When Townshend delivered his address on the new taxes about to be levied, Colonial Agents and merchants were alike barred from the House of Commons. The duties proposed were highly objectionable, and, besides, the salaries of the colonial governors were assumed by the home government, so that there should no longer be any reason for fearless action by England's agents. The second tax bill passed in June, 1767. In September Townshend died. The boycott again began in America, and the "Sam Adams regiments" went to Boston to make the Governor feel more secure in the collection of taxes. The Boston shooting happened March 5, 1770, and the South Carolina rebellion in May, 1771. There followed after Townshend, in the Colonial office at London, a pestiferous Lord Hillsborough, and it is one of those delightful episodes abounding in Dr. Franklin's life of general good-will, that this high and mighty noble at last met a simple and unostentatious enemy who could destroy him. Hillsborough assumed the right to name the Colonial Agents, and he did not want Dr. Franklin among them. On Dr. Franklin's first visit to His Lordship, to hand in his credentials as Agent for Massachusetts Bay, the visitor was informed that Assemblies could not alone appoint Agents; that Dr. Franklin was not Agent; Governor Hutchinson had vetoed the bill appointing him. This news was conveyed in a mean and contemptible way, the Minister accompanying his statements with many expressions of scorn, notwithstanding the civil remonstrances of Dr. Franklin, who was wholly taken by surprise. At last, the American gathered his papers and made his exit, saying, with deliberation, "It is, I believe, of no great importance whether the appointment is acknowledged or not, for I have not the

least conception that an Agent can, at present, be of any use to any of the Colonies." The Minister who had invited his bad feeling was nevertheless quick to complain in London that the American Agent had been "extremely rude and abusive." "I find he did not mistake me," said Dr. Franklin.

Now the clever Dr. Franklin began undermining the ill-won fame of Hillsborough. This captious Minister was a shining mark for criticism. With the many influences that Dr. Franklin could command, it soon became the opinion of all who had property-stakes in the colonies that Hillsborough was an unsafe man. Later, on the interior barrier question, Dr. Franklin opposed Hillsborough before the Privy Council, and they, to anger Hillsborough, adopted Dr. Franklin's scheme, when his Lordship resigned in anger, and was let go. Dr. Franklin went to call on the noble earl, and finally was asked to cease paying those tributes of affection. "I have never since," he said, "been nigh him, and we have only abused one another at a distance." To complete Dr. Franklin's victory, he was asked what English statesman would be most acceptable to America, and chose Lord Dartmouth as Hillsborough's successor, who was appointed. Dr. Franklin was at once recognized as Agent for Massachusetts Bay, and he and Lord Dartmouth set out hopefully to stem the advancing tide of the Revolution. He was now well on his way to undo Hutchinson, for Dartmouth thought the Massachusetts Governor was "perniciously loyal." The effect, too, of Grenville and Townshend's taxing acts had been ridiculously inadequate. The collectors had spent \$60,000 and extorted \$7,500. The East India Company had lost \$10,000,000 by the boycott of its goods.

Dr. Franklin was complaining, one day, of the expense and folly of sending the "Sam Adams regiments" to Boston, when "a friend at court" remarked that the Ministers had only followed the advice of the Americans themselves, and he at once produced to Dr. Franklin the original letters of

Hutchinson, Oliver and other natives of Massachusetts Bay, asking for the troops. The addresses had been cut from the letters, but they were otherwise un mutilated—the signatures were intact. Dr. Franklin, thus armed with a weapon showing the un-American spirit of Hutchinson, at once transmitted the letters to Boston, covering his operations with the thin veil usually afforded by pledges of inviolable secrecy. The Assembly at Boston, eager to make wider use of the documents, invented the fable that authenticated copies of the same documents had also arrived from England, and publication was at once made of the "authenticated copies." The effect in the northern colonies was such as to render the writers furious, as the letters had been secretly written to William Whatley, who was now dead. They did not know on whom to let their wrath descend, for Dr. Franklin's hand had not yet appeared. The betrayal seemed to lie between Temple and Thomas Whatley, the dead man's brother and executor, and these two men, on being accused by each other, fought a bloody duel in London. Dr. Franklin did not hear of this duel till it happened, and as another hostile meeting was appointed, he was forced to publish the fact that neither man was guilty, but he (Dr. Franklin) as Agent, had transmitted the letters as a matter of business, as soon as he came across them. Who really gave the letters to Dr. Franklin has never transpired. Trouble and plenty of it was now brewing for the Agent.

The Massachusetts Bay House of Representatives forwarded a petition to the king, stating in effect that they had seen the letters of Hutchinson and Oliver, Governor and Lieutenant-Governor, and humbly prayed that the twain be removed from their posts. This petition laid on the table of the Ministry until the appearance of Dr. Franklin's public explanation, made to prevent the second duel, when, unexpectedly, on a Saturday, the Agent received notice that the Lords of the Committee for Plantation Affairs would

hear him at the Cockpit on Tuesday noon. Late Monday he was warned that Mauduit, Agent for Hutchinson and Oliver, would be represented by legal counsel at the hearing. He then sought Bollan, Agent for the Council of Massachusetts Bay, who advised that it was useless to employ barristers in colony cases, for the eminent ones did not desire to offend the Court. But, although Bollan had been summoned, when he rose to speak he was told by the Lords that the Council was not a party to the hearing. Dr. Franklin spoke, renewing the prayer of his clients, and asking for more time. Hearing was postponed till January 29, 1774, but the Lord Chief Justice declared that inquiry would be made to learn how the Assembly obtained the letters.

Whatley now sued Dr. Franklin at law, the newspapers unceasingly denounced the American savant as a meddlesome person in incendiary designs, the Court was said to be in a rage, and there were rumors of arrest and seizure of papers. Dr. Franklin had sent a kite into the storm-clouds this time that was bringing down plenty of lightning. He was in deep distress, and, listening to Mr. Bollan's revised advice, employed two eminent legal advocates, and instructed them without ceasing.

Dr. Franklin, now 68 years old, had attained that venerable and peaceful appearance with which an equally complacent world, from China to Peru, in spirit, now views him. He came before a notable assemblage of bitter and malevolent enemies, in a full dress of spotted Manchester velvet, in which he was doomed to pass the most cruel moments of his existence; therefore, he preserved the suit for corresponding heights of joy in later years. There were thirty-five Privy Councillors present, all anti-American and anti-Franklinian in sentiment, and doubtless the friends and companions of Lord Hillsborough were not lax in their service to him on this occasion. Dr. Franklin stood immovable before the fireplace, showing a degree of control over

his features that astonished all who were not wholly blinded by rage. His own advocates were ineffective. Wedderburn, Solicitor-General, was the advocate of Hutchinson and Oliver. This Wedderburn was a master of low invective. To the satisfaction of the Court and all the American-haters, he poured forth his billingsgate without a restraining frown from the Chief Justice. "Nothing," said this he-fish-wife, "will acquit Dr. Franklin of the charge of obtaining the letters by fraudulent or corrupt means, for the most malignant of purposes, unless he stole them from the person who stole them." "I hope, my Lords, you will mark and brand the man, for the honor of this country, of Europe and of mankind." "Into what companies will he hereafter go with an unembarrassed face, or the honest intrepidity of virtue! Men will watch him with a jealous eye; they will hide their papers from him, and lock up their escritaires. He will henceforth esteem it a libel to be called a man of letters." "He not only took away the letters from one brother, but kept himself concealed till he nearly occasioned the murder of the other. It is impossible to read his account, expressive of the coolest and most deliberate malice, without horror. Amidst these tragical events—of one person nearly murdered, of another answerable for the issue, of a worthy Governor, hurt in his dearest interests, the fate of America in suspense—here is a man who, with the utmost insensibility of remorse, stands up and avows himself the author of all." "The bloody African is not surpassed by the coolness and apathy of the wily American."

Dr. Priestly, who was present, believed that the Court had no other object in the hearing than to insult the calm old man with benignant face who stood stoically before the fireplace. The speeches were soon finished, Dr. Franklin was fruitlessly asked to reveal the person who gave him the letters, and the sitting closed. Report was made the same day, denying the petition of the House of Massachusetts Bay, and

also stating, by way of insult to Dr. Franklin that the conclusion of the Lords was that "The charge of surreptitiously obtaining the letters was a true one." On the following Monday morning he was notified that he was no longer Deputy Postmaster General in North America. His good name, a thing precious to him, momentarily seemed gone. The Lord Dartmouth, whom he had advanced, had turned a cruel enemy. Massachusetts rebuked him (who had sent the letters) with being lax, Arthur Lee, who was to succeed him, was full of venom, and London was agog with disturbing inquiries whether or not Dr. Franklin were to go to the Tower under arrest for treason. Governor Hutchinson avowed that it would be wise to prevent the return to America of Dr. Franklin, who was now publicly named as "The great fomentor of the opposition in America."

When Dr. Franklin put away the spotted velvet suit, it is likely he prepared his papers for seizure. His true friends considered his further stay in England as prejudicial to his personal safety, but he, probably feeling that he was better represented by himself than he could be by anybody else in his absence, merely offered to resign.

In February, 1775, in the House of Lords, Lord Sandwich was speaking against a measure of conciliation with America under discussion. He looked full at Dr. Franklin, who was standing well in view. The bill, Sandwich said, deserved only contempt. No peer did it. "It appears to me to be rather the work of some American. I fancy I have in my eye the person who drew it up, one of the bitterest and most mischievous enemies this country has ever known." Lord Chatham instantly replied that the plan was entirely his own, but he would have been glad to have the aid of the great American, "one whom all Europe ranks with our Boyles and Newtons, as an honor not to the English nation only, but to human nature."

This praise, while it was welcome to Dr. Franklin at this time, was not palatable to Americans, and he seems to

have felt the fact, for, on hearing his people abused as cowards, sneaks, cheats, and heretics, in the prevailing English fashion of Parliament, he drew up an indignant letter, which Walpole, a friend, was able to induce him to suppress. Walpole did not conceal his opinion that Dr. Franklin ought to leave England forthwith. The Ministry made an abortive attempt to bribe him, which rendered his position still more perilous, and he placed the Agency in the hands of Arthur Lee, who had long waited for it with impatience. Dr. Priestly spent a sad afternoon with his departing friend, who had, above most men, the quality of evoking the love of his fellows, and saw him off somewhat hurriedly. Dr. Franklin arrived in Philadelphia, sixty-nine years old, May 5, 1775. His wife was dead. His daughter was married to a stranger. Just at the hour when he might, in the course of nature, expect to rest in peace for the remainder of his life, Lexington and Concord were fired upon. He no longer complained. He sat down and wrote to Strahan, Member of Parliament at London, who had voted for military suppression:

"You have begun to burn our towns and murder our people. Look upon your hands; they are stained with the blood of your relations! You and I were long friends; you are now my enemy, and I am

"Yours, B. FRANKLIN."

He loved a pun. When he became Postmaster-General (\$5,000 a year), directly afterward, he changed the franking formula on his letters, "Free: B. Franklin," into "B. Free, Franklin."

Five days after his return, the Second Continental Congress met, and Dr. Franklin had already been elected to it. Bunker Hill was fought, and General Washington, of Virginia, was sent to Cambridge to take command of the patriot army outside of Boston.

Dr. Franklin now established the patriot postal service, invented an obstruction for the river, and drew up a scheme for union of the colonies. Wed-

derburn had cured him of his loyalty to King George, and when the philosopher was elected to the Pennsylvania Assembly, he refused to take the oath of fealty, and stayed out of his seat. He was already chairman of the Local Committee of Safety. With all his sorrows at London, and his widowhood, his witty sayings, says Parton, were "the circulating medium of Congress."

In September, 1775, Dr. Franklin was sent at the head of a committee of three to confer with General Washington at Cambridge. General Greene writes how he "looked on that very great man with silent admiration." The illustrious Abigail, wife of John Adams, had been taught from infancy to venerate Dr. Franklin, and she now read in his countenance "patriotism in its full luster, blended with every virtue of a Christian."

Early in 1776 the aged Doctor was sent to Montreal on a needless errand, trying to his health. Returning, he presided over the body to make a Constitution for the independent State of Pennsylvania. The Quakers were too slow, and Dr. Franklin felt that he might have to move to Boston and set up the insurrection hand in hand with Samuel Adams and General Washington. These three men must now perish if the new nation were not established. The tide of opinion turned, and Dr. Franklin was one of the Committee of Five to draw The Declaration of Independence. As Harrison, of Virginia, signed it, he said: "We must all hang together." "Yes," said Dr. Franklin, as he signed, "or we shall all hang separately." So he now had company.

When General Washington had been driven out of Long Island, Howe, the British Admiral, Dr. Franklin's erstwhile friend, sought to treat, and Dr. Franklin, John Adams and Rutledge went to see him. At lunch he declared if America should fall he would feel it like the loss of a brother. "My Lord," said Dr. Franklin, "we will use our utmost endeavors to save your Lordship that mortification."

He wrote to Dr. Price: "Britain, at the expense of \$15,000,000, has killed 150 Yankees this campaign, which is \$100,000 a head; and at Bunker Hill she gained a mile of ground, half of which she lost again by our taking post at Ploughed Hill. During the same time 60,000 children have been born in America. From these data a mathematical head will easily calculate the time and expense necessary to kill us all and conquer our whole territory."

At the age of seventy Dr. Franklin was called upon to go to France. He turned his fortune into patriot bonds, and arrived at Nantes, France, as the chief American Ambassador to Europe. It is believed that history does not record of any other man an act so daring and unselfish at an age so near the natural term of life. In France, the astonishing Beaumarchais, fomentor of two Revolutions, author of "The Barber of Seville," was doing all he could to aid America. The troupe of American Ambassadors sent to Europe was like Falstaff's soldiers. The most they could do generally was to solicit money of Dr. Franklin and send home discouraging reports of business and criticisms of their great colleague. The English were awakened to the danger of having "the old arch-rebel" at Paris. France was warned to refuse him shelter, and Lord Stormont, English Ambassador at Versailles, threatened to go at once. But the American Rebellion was highly popular in Paris, and Dr. Franklin, with fame already great, was received in person with increasing delight. His white flowing hair, without wig, his brown Quaker raiment over spotless white linen, his "idyllic simplicity," the re-incarnation of the sages of Athens—all this kind of comment became almost universal, because the ambassador made a most artistic figure, and because "perfidious Albion" was in trouble. Mirabeau repeated Turgot's epigram that Dr. Franklin had wrested the lightnings from heaven and scepters from tyrants. This is the most spectacular point in the great man's long career. In the tumult of popu-

larity he calmly gathered such stores of power as lasted him until Yorktown came.

Officers, "brave as their swords," now fell upon Franklin like a swarm of locusts, and he penned the following model letter of recommendation, which the confiding Frenchmen hugged to their breasts.

"SIR: The bearer of this, who is going to America, presses me to give him a letter of recommendation, though I know nothing of him, not even his name. This may seem extraordinary, but I assure you it is not uncommon here. Sometimes, indeed, one unknown person brings another equally unknown to recommend him, and sometimes they recommend one another. As to this gentleman, I must refer you to himself for his character and merits, with which he is certainly better acquainted than I can possibly be. I recommend him, however, to those civilities which every stranger, of whom one knows no harm, has a right to, and I request you will do him all the good offices and show him all the favor, that on further acquaintance, you shall find him to deserve. I have the honor to be, etc.,

"B. FRANKLIN."

Marie Antoinette and the king never sympathized with Franklin in politics. The king and the Count of Provence, his brother, were both of a highly philosophical mind, but his majesty readily understood the meaning of Dr. Franklin when he said the American cause was "The cause of all mankind." Had Marie Antoinette come high into favor a little earlier, it is not probable that Dr. Franklin would have secured an alliance.

Our amiable doctor now set up as Lord Chief Justice of the High Court of Privateering on the High Seas. It will be remembered that John Paul Jones' ship, "Bon Homme Richard," was named after Poor Richard.

Dr. Franklin took up his abode at the then suburb of Passy, not far from Versailles. His communications with the Court were at first made through Le Ray de Chaumont, with whom he

lived, who was an ardent foe of England and friend of America. All the work of his office was performed by himself and two grandsons who had come with him. What with his privateers, his remonstrances when these cruisers were stopped in French ports, his pleas for money, his learned essays, his encouragement of the advance of liberty in France, and his comptroller-ship, it seems incredible that he should have got through without outside clerical aid.

The year 1777 grew darker and darker. Howe had not only chased General Washington out of Long Island and New York, but he had taken Philadelphia. "No, sir," said Franklin, "Philadelphia has taken Howe." At last, in the nick of time, "General Burgoyne surrendered to Mr. Gates," at Saratoga, and Beaumarchais broke his arm hurrying to spread the good news at Paris. Dr. Franklin accomplished the wonderful feat of dispatching the messenger Austin, whom Congress had sent to him with the Saratoga news, into the heart of the Opposition Nobility at London, and was soon in possession of the opinion of all classes of people in England. There the friends of Dr. Franklin begged him, for England's sake, to make no treaty with France; meanwhile England was hiring Hessians. Dr. Franklin operated with this lever on Vergennes, and that Prime Minister met him in the forest near Versailles and as good as made the French treaty with America secure.

The two envoys gave Dr. Franklin much trouble and little aid, but finally the French treaty was ready to be signed. Dr. Franklin went to Passy, took out the spotted velvet suit which he had worn when Wedderburn abused him, and, thus attired, put his signature to the second great document in the history of the freedom of America.

Lord Stormont, English Ambassador, now left Paris, the Marquis of Noailles, French Ambassador, left London, and Gerard, who had drawn the treaty with the Americans, left Paris for Philadelphia as the first Minister accredited to the new nation. What was better,

though less portentous, was the sailing of D'Estaing's French fleet from Toulon to America. Deane went back with Gerard. Lee's private secretary was thought to be an English spy, and when the French had matters of high importance they trusted only Dr. Franklin. This confidence in Dr. Franklin increased as the years went by.

Voltaire made his triumphal entry to Paris in April, 1778. At the Academy of Sciences, before a distinguished audience, Franklin and Voltaire, "Solon and Sophocles," embraced each other, whereupon the audience did likewise one with another.

Gerard at Philadelphia defeated the Lee-Izard cabal against Dr. Franklin, and John Adams came to Paris as special envoy. He found financial affairs and accounts in confusion, but soon agreed that they could not be disentangled. The fault-finders were the ones who had spent the most money for their personal uses. Adams got in a quarrel with Vergennes and passed on to Holland. Dr. Franklin had been the Navy Department, Prize Court, Secret Service, Consul-General, Financial Agent and Foreign Department of America, with two clerks in all, and Congress, on its side, had been lax in attending to such business as Dr. Franklin had been able to keep straight. As Dr. Franklin was the only solvent Paymaster of the United States, all foreign-American quarrels finally came up to him for review, making him new enemies. "It is hard," he wrote, "that I, who give others no trouble with my quarrels, should be plagued with all the perversities of those who think fit to wrangle with one another."

The prudent Dr. Franklin never let go of a dollar that was foolishly paid without writing a long letter of regret, announcing his early ruin, but Congress found it hard to bankrupt him, and soon became thoroughly hardened to his cries. When he first went to France, shiploads of indigo and tobacco were to be sent to him, which would provide him with funds. The English captured some of the ships; the rest

were claimed by Beaumarchais, possibly with justice. Vergennes in the end was the sole source of Dr. Franklin's funds. Congress was to borrow \$5,000,000 and Dr. Franklin, through Vergennes, guaranteed the interest. Congress at once drew on this money for all purposes, and General Washington did not obtain enough of it. France lent America \$600,000 when General Burgoyne surrendered, and Spain would have lent as much more if Arthur Lee had not boasted of the loan a little too soon. As 1779 passed, and Turgot at Paris became influential, the prodigal policy of Vergennes was brought under criticism, and while Dr. Franklin was meekly begging for more money he was told that France itself was \$4,000,000 short. He wrote to John Paul Jones, who must scrape his bottoms: "For God's sake, be sparing." He wrote to Congress, asking that body to order agents in Europe not to draw on him. But whenever they heard he had money, the Congressmen themselves made haste to send him a bill to pay. Jay wrote from Spain—he had gone thither to raise a great loan: "We should indeed have been greatly distressed, had it not been for your kind offices." The good but suffering doctor admonished the patriots as a whole in the style of Poor Richard. Said he: "A small increase of industry in every American, male and female, with a small diminution of luxury, would produce a sum far superior to all we can hope to beg or borrow from all our friends in Europe." He had lent his own fortune; he was giving his time; now he offered the people his counsel. In return, they drew new bills. Public wealth actually increased during the years General Washington was in his cheerless camps and Dr. Franklin was soliciting with all his earnestness—so true is it in society that some must suffer for the rest, or all will sink together. Patriot Laurens, sent as Minister to the Hague, landed at the Tower of London. Congress drew bills even on him, and the sympathetic Dr. Franklin accepted them, for all bills would finally come

to Passy. It is a marvel how the fame of a paymaster who pays will spread among collectors. He must have signed the acceptance of 1,000 bills in January, 1781, and 990 of them were for expenses that did General Washington little good, in Dr. Franklin's opinion. At last, after almost unfriendly pressure on Vergennes, France lent about \$2,000,000 it could not spare, on condition that General Washington should draw the bills. Congress was insulted, Dr. Franklin disbursed the money, and it was gone before General Washington knew anything about it. Then Dr. Franklin persuaded the Minister Necker to guarantee a loan of about \$180,000 in Holland. In the American haste to get this money, Dr. Franklin was left with legitimate bills unpaid. "I see nobody cares how much I am distressed, provided they can carry their own points," he wrote in despair. The Holland money had not been spent for French goods, and Dr. Franklin felt bitterly ashamed. The goods themselves got into a lawsuit, and even John Adams, in Holland, had to draw on Dr. Franklin, who, vowing he could ne'er disburse, disbursed. In 1781 Congress benignantly declared it would draw on no other Ministers without funds, but would draw on Dr. Franklin funds or no funds. When the miraculous doctor agreed with Vergennes to accept no drafts drawn later than March, 1781, he patriotically winked at the invention of Congress whereby March, 1781, to judge by the bills, was very slow coming, while the bills came all the faster. An American agent implored Dr. Franklin to help him to some \$8,200 at once, as it was plain the paymaster would soon be worse off. In March he got \$4,000,000; the next year he got \$4,000,000 in a lump sum. It is usually said that nearly \$6,000,000 of the French loans and gifts to Dr. Franklin were the results, pure and simple, of his personal influence. No other Minister—John Adams worst of all—could make friends with the French Ministers. All Europe came to look upon Dr. Franklin as the responsible head of American things in

Europe—the man who really sympathized with General Washington—the person to be addressed when bills were to be collected or peace to be suggested.

Lord North, English Prime Minister, received the news of Yorktown November 25, 1781, "as he would have taken a ball in his breast." He sent his man Digges to Dr. Franklin in Paris and Adams in Holland, to see if he could not split France and America. "The greatest villain I ever met with," writes Dr. Franklin of Digges. March 22, 1782, Dr. Franklin, foreseeing that his old friend Lord Shelburne must come into office, threw out a friendly letter, hoping for a general peace, so as to release France also from the war. Shelburne sent Oswald to Paris, who talked matters over with both Dr. Franklin and Vergennes. Various other conferences, in other quarters, were going forward, so there was a good chance for misunderstandings. Dr. Franklin trusted Vergennes, who had saved America, and Vergennes was now trying to retrieve Canada and protect Spain. Jay and Adams naturally were glad to oppose the interests of France, especially as they found Vergennes playing false to Dr. Franklin. Thus matters dragged till Shelburne became full Prime Minister, with Fox out. Vergennes had sufficient influence with Congress to order the Paris Commissioners to favor France. Adams and Jay, in session, outvoted the doctor, and he, true to the majority, agreed to their plan, and the three outwitted Vergennes at his own game, though it appears somewhat a lamentable triumph over the nation that ruined itself for our making.

When Vergennes learned of the protocol, he wrote to Dr. Franklin: "You are wise and discreet, sir; you perfectly understand what is due to propriety; you have all your life performed your duties; I pray you consider how you propose to fulfill those which are due the king of France." It was only a few weeks since Vergennes had given Dr. Franklin money, and let some of his own bills go to protest.

The doctor heard the Adams faction in America denouncing him for his Canadian views, and he listened to the just charges of duplicity leveled against him at Versailles. It is not known that he was actually aware of the simultaneous duplicity of Vergennes, but it seems likely he would be told of it by Jay. He accordingly began some of the most conciliatory letter-writing of his life, and at last even Vergennes declared: "I accuse no person, not even Dr. Franklin. He has yielded too easily to the bias of his colleagues."

When the day came at Versailles to sign the preliminary treaty with Great Britain recognizing the independence of the United States, Dr. Franklin appeared in his suit of spotted velvet, although the court was in mourning. There was a delay, the Doctor went home, and, on a later date, arrived and signed the paper clad once more in the celebrated habit. He never boasted or admitted his revenge, but it is believed by his biographers that he thus assuaged the hurts that Wedderburn had inflicted on his pride at London.

Dr. Franklin had long asked to come home. "The blessing promised to the peacemakers," he said, "relates, I fancy, to the next world, for in this they seem to have a greater chance of being cursed." But Congress, when it rebuked him, calculated to draw upon his unexhaustible fund of good humor, and did not, until March, 1785, resolve that Dr. Franklin "might return as soon as convenient," and Thomas Jefferson might succeed him.

The good Doctor was now old and infirm. Jefferson says that on the day the aged American left Passy, "it seemed as if the village had lost its patriarch." The King's people lent him a royal litter to bear him to the sea. The complimentary portrait of the King given to the departing Minister had a double circle of 408 diamonds. He was reconciled to his son at Portsmouth, and signed a peace with that somewhat unlovely Tory. For Franklin, as thoroughly as General Washington, had hated Tories. It is not demoralizing to read the invectives which

both these great souls poured on their illogical foes.

September 13, 1785, an old man of seventy-nine walked up the streets of Philadelphia—we hope in his spotted velvet suit. Little children were brought out that they might say they had looked upon a man so noble and so perfect. He came like a father. He came, too, like a freeman, to die not on the tyrant's scaffold, to be buried under no common jail, to be pictured in no prison calendar. Beneath those white hairs lay a brain that for fifty years had not rested in the work of liberation.

He took no salary while in France, and received back only a portion of his own money. He was at once elected to office, and thereupon did not neglect to make a *mot*. "They engrossed the prime of my life," he said. "They have eaten my flesh, and seem resolved now to pick my bones." In May, 1787, the Constitutional Convention added him to its number, so that if General Washington should be called away from the chair, there might be some one upon whom all could agree. He was essentially with Jefferson, and against Hamilton, in principle. He thought a salary should not pertain to high office, for then "men of indefatigable activity in their selfish pursuits" would push aside the wise and moderate. A peculiar episode is mentioned in the Convention. The skeptical Dr. Franklin moved that the sessions open with prayer; the devout Hamilton opposed it. Dr. Franklin wanted equal suffrage, a President not re-eligible, to serve seven years, subject to impeachment; no absolute veto. He was warmly for Washington for first President.

He was confined to his bed the last two years of his life; still his mind was keen. "I seem to have intruded myself into the company of posterity." "People that will drink to the bottom of the cup must expect to meet with some of the dregs." "I have received more blame, as well as more praise, than I deserved." "Having seen a good deal of this world, I feel a grow-

ing curiosity to be acquainted with some other." His last considerable act was a memorial against the slave trade which he had always utterly denounced. When the French Revolution broke out, he said the people of France, having served an apprenticeship to liberty in America, had now "set up for themselves." Presently, he thought, a lover of liberty could find a country in any Christian nation.

"A dying man can do nothing easily," he said, late on the night of April 17, 1790, and soon sank into a lethargy, and passed away. He was buried with such prudent splendor as the Quakers could summon for a memorable obsequy, and the frugality of the city of Philadelphia restrained it from attempting any notable memorial. He was plain in life. He would prefer the deep gratitude of the generous few who closely study his career, to the light comment of the passing crowd who might be awed by the grandeur of a suitable monument.

Mirabeau, before the French Assembly, delivered an impassioned elegy on Dr. Franklin, and the Deputies wore mourning for three days. A great funeral was held in Paris itself, the citizens each wearing a badge. The Revolutionary clubs pondered affectionately on his writings. A street of Paris (in Passy) received his name. The books of science were everywhere opened and his death faithfully recorded.

JOHN PAUL JONES.

1747-1792

John Paul Jones (1747-1792) was born July 6, 1747, on the estate of Arbigland, in the parish of Kirkbean and the stewardry of Kirkcudbright, Scotland, where his father, John Paul, was gardner. At twelve he went to sea as apprentice to a merchant of Whitehaven, in whose ships he visited America several times. He became a skillful sailor and was for some time mate of a slaver in the West Indies. On his way back to England, after leaving the slave trade in disgust, the

captain and the mate in the ships in which he was both died; and the skillful manner in which Paul Jones brought the ship safely into port induced the owners to appoint him captain. In 1773, having for some unknown reason assumed the cognomen Jones, he settled in Virginia, on a property which had fallen to him on the death of an elder brother. When the American War of Independence broke out two years later Jones took up arms for the Colonies, and accepted command in the navy of the new Republic. He did good service against his native land, and in 1777 was sent to France to receive a more important command. Disappointed in that, he sailed, in 1778, to the English coast in his ship *Ranger*, and availed himself of his early knowledge to land at Whitehaven, where, however, he was unsuccessful in his attempt to fire the shipping. Next year he sailed on a similar expedition in the *Bonhomme Richard*, along with other vessels, and, steering up the Firth of Forth, was only prevented by a strong westerly gale from attacking Leith. On his way south again he fell in, off Flamborough Head, with the English ship *Serapis*, which, after a long and bloody combat, he compelled to strike. That exploit raised his fame to its acme. On his return to Paris he was fêted and carassed by the best society; and Louis XVI presented him with a gold-hilted sword, and decorated him with the Military Order of Merit. After some time spent in America, where he was much chagrined by the neglect that met his boastful requests for further employment, Paul Jones returned to Paris as agent for all prizes taken in Europe under his own command. While he resumed his efforts to pose as a man of *ton* he attended carefully to his duties. A favorable report to Congress as to his naval services was followed by a vote of a gold medal from that body in 1786. In 1788 the Chevalier Jones entered the service of the Empress Catherine of Russia, and became as enthusiastic a Russian as he had been an American. He was appointed to a command in the Black Sea,



JOHN ADAMS

with the rank of rear-admiral, to act against the Turks; but the jealousy and rivalry of the Russian commanders brought about his recall in less than eight months. Summoned to St. Petersburg, on a pretext of receiving a post in the North Sea, he was left in restless idleness until at last two years' formal leave of absence was granted to him. On this virtual dismissal, Paul Jones retired to Paris, soured and disappointed, and after two years spent in fruitlessly importuning the Russian court, he died in that city on July 18, 1792.

Paul Jones is described as a "short, thick little fellow, about 5 feet 8 inches in height, of a dark, swarthy complexion." Naval skill and bravery he certainly had, but his letters prove him to have been boastful and quarrelsome. He writhed under the suspicion of being an "adventurer;" once and again he eagerly repels the charge. English contemporary accounts generally speak of him as a pirate; and, though he certainly ranked as an officer of the United States, the independent manner in which he cruised might well suggest letters of marque rather than a Government commission.

JOHN ADAMS.

1735-1826

SECOND PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

It was John Adams, of Massachusetts Bay, who rose superior to home influences and advocated the election of Colonel Washington as Commander-in-Chief of the Continental army. Without this firm and unselfish action, it may be seen that John Hancock would have secured the place; General Washington might then have seen fit to defend Virginia rather than the Hudson and Schuylkill, and there would have been a different war, perhaps, with different results. When General Washington withdrew from public life he considered the Constitution and the Government safe in the

hands of John Adams, and it may almost be said that the Massachusetts statesman was the first of the Presidents, as the Founder seemed of another order—self-elected and self-dismissed. He had made the nation and could have been its king, save that he thought the time for kings had gone by, and the time for representative governments had come. In this sense, therefore, John Adams was considered among the Fathers as the best man for the new and distinguished place. General Washington had done all he could to convey his own personal distinction to the office. His confidence in John Adams; his willingness to have John Adams as his Vice-President in the first years of the Constitution; these are things which must be said first of the subject of this notice.

John Adams, who was born at Braintree, Mass., on October 30, 1735, was in his way and after the manner of his nature as earnest in self-culture as George Washington. The competition and pressure around him were more noticeable; he was to be self-made, showing the angles and harsh places that often abound in such characters. But he was of an order of men that we must admire and approve. It was because there was a group so large, of men so noble, that we are free, and this volume is made.

It was not unusual for a parent of those days to send his eldest son to college, and, if he left an estate, to divide it among the other children. Thus John Adams, being an elder son, went through Harvard University. The social distinctions by which pupils were marked in graduating, place the Adams family on record as having been comparatively humble. To all intents, we should regard John Adams as a self-made man. He graduated in 1755, and became master of a grammar school at Worcester. A little later, with the school on his hands, he began the study of law in (General) Putnam's office.

In October, 1758, the young man of twenty-three was ready to seek the learned Mr. Gridley, of Boston,

"father" of that bar, who consented to recommend the student to the court, and the oath was administered.

When he was twenty-nine, October 25, 1764, he married Abigail Smith, who became the immortal Abigail Adams, one of the noblest and most intelligent of women, the wife and the mother of a President of the United States. By this alliance the young attorney broadened his practice and his ambitions. It is difficult to point in history to a more intellectual or better-mated pair of people.

He attended the town meeting, which was by this time a hot debating club, where he was easily first, held little offices, came to the notice of the English Governor, Bernard, and, on the explosion of the Stamp Act, with the riot at Boston, drew up resolutions instructing Braintree's delegate to the Assembly that were taken as a model by forty other towns.

The Stamp Act, and the refusal of the colonists to buy stamps, stopped legal processes, and Mr. Adams, on December 18, 1765, had not drawn a writ since November 1. Next day he was notified that he, with Mr. Gradley and James Otis, must represent Boston before the Governor and Council (Senate) in support of a memorial praying that the courts be opened. A less patriotic man might have felt that advancement at the bar lay on the side of the law and the Government; but John Adams did not waver. He spoke first, without adequate preparation, as he conceived, "on a question that was never made before, and he wished he could hope it never would be made again—that is, whether the courts of law should open or not."

He refused small Government offices and perquisites, foreseeing trouble, and desiring to be free of gratitude. Early in 1768 he removed to Boston, taking up his residence in the "White House," in Brattle Square. There Governor Bernard again tried to get John Adams to take office—this time the important post of Advocate-General in the Court of Admiralty. But the lines were drawing closer, the "Sam Adams

Regiments" had come, filling the town, and John Adams stood strong for liberty. He thought he feared somewhat, but he was strong. The troops were an eyesore; the populace was turbulent and disrespectful, teaching the boys to act still more inhospitably, and the attack on the sentry, with the "Boston Massacre" took place. The sentries fired, in the end killing five rioters or onlookers, and Captain Preston and other soldiers were put on trial for murder. John Adams was instantly retained at the head of Captain Preston's counsel, and accepted without misgivings. In this way Hutchinson, now the Governor, silenced the best orator on the side of the town meeting (for Otis was becoming incapacitated by mental disease). The trial of Preston lasted six days, and he was acquitted. Two of the soldiers, after trial, were branded. The opponents of John Adams always taunted him with this service; Hutchinson hinted that there was a large fee. But the advocate received in all less than \$100, and Preston never thanked his successful counsel.

He stood so well before Boston in this delicate matter that he was at once elected delegate to the Assembly, an honor, however, that looked like ruin.

In 1771 he thought his health had completely failed him, and, becoming exceedingly despondent, moved his family back to the town of Braintree, but still practiced law in Boston. He was famous as a "Son of Liberty."

In June, 1774, while John Adams was presiding over town meeting at Faneuil Hall, Samuel Adams was locking the doors at Salem and getting delegates to Philadelphia appointed before the Governor could break in to prorogue the rebellious Assembly. John Adams was one of the five delegates so appointed. He who went to Philadelphia, as he believed, without an idea, was one of the few who arrived there with ideas. The first Congress did little save indorse the Massachusetts policy of boycott, but John Adams was on the chief committees, and was an early target for the jealousy and

envy of other debaters of less skill, industry and native courage. The influence of the Virginia members was conservative, and much was done to keep them in line. The Philadelphians were determined to leave no stone unturned in the way of loyal petition to the sovereign in order to escape war. All the people who had come with Samuel Adams must keep in the background, save that Mr. Hancock was supposed to be a man with some property-stake at Boston.

When Mr. Adams returned, he was summoned for consultation by the Provincial Assembly, and set to work newspaper writing. When John Adams again started for Philadelphia the times were dark indeed. He was forced to leave wife and small children in a farmhouse near the seashore, exposed to a thousand dangers. But his leonine wife bade him go. At Philadelphia he now saw Colonel Washington in his fighting clothes, and his spirits rose correspondingly. "I have bought some military books," he wrote.

The Conciliationists were still strong; they singled him out as the champion of a republic, of the Presbyterians, as they called the Bostoneers. He, on his side, was determined that Congress should adopt the army at Boston, and should commission Washington as Commander-in-Chief. In this he was even ahead of Samuel Adams.

The action of John Adams in pressing this matter on Congress, and carrying the day as he did, marks him at once as one of the great Fathers of the Republic.

The news from Mr. Adam's home was disturbing. An epidemic raged, and the members of his family were all stricken; his brother and his wife's mother had died. He went home in the summer recess of 1775, and, while he was gone, the Conciliationists seemed to increase in number. The most prominent of these was John Jay, afterward a leading patriot. On his return to Philadelphia, Mr. Adams set out with renewed vigor to increase the feeble flame of Revolution.

We shall see that John Adams, in

actual Revolutionary times, was always well supported, both by men and events. Few statesmen have been so clearly able to see the future. To increase his prestige in Congress, he had been appointed Chief Justice of the patriot State of Massachusetts, but in December, 1775, he considered it wise to go back, get in complete touch with the people, and, beside, learn what General Washington most needed from the other States. This was a satisfactory visit for the Massachusetts delegates in Congress were bidden to urge Congress "to concert, direct, and order such further measures as shall to them appear best calculated for the establishment of right and liberty to the American colonies, upon a basis permanent and secure against the power and art of the British Administration."

As the Declaration of Independence began to be an assured future event, John Adams felt increasing awe. He was now unquestionably the leader, par excellence, of Congress. Samuel Adams was satisfied with obscurity, so long as independence was to come. Jefferson could not make a striking address; it does not seem that Patrick Henry cared to enter upon the trying labors, or displace so sound and good a man as John Adams. When it came to writing the Declaration, Jefferson and John Adams each civilly requested the other to make the draft; but it had been tacitly understood that the Virginian should have the honor.

John Adams was connected with ninety committees in Congress, but seems to have served as a sort of War Secretary through the hot summer of 1776. He was of stout build, and the Philadelphia weather nearly prostrated him, as he was unused to it. He was forced to rest at home in the winter, returning for another summer of the same heavy work, united with the business of foreign relations, especially with France. When he left Philadelphia, November 11, 1777, in company with his kinsman, Samuel Adams, he expected another vacation. But December 3d he was notified to leave at once for France as Commissioner to

supersede Deane and to weight his dispatch bags, so that they could be sunk in the sea in case of capture by British cruisers. Dr. Franklin was already in Paris. Mr. Adams sailed on the frigate *Boston*, in February, taking his son, John Quincy Adams (afterward President), with him. Seventeen days out, a British ship-of-war gave chase. Mr. Adams urged officers and crew to fight desperately, if overhauled, "deeming it to be more eligible to be killed on board the *Boston* or sunk to the bottom, in her than to be taken prisoner." He reached Bordeaux in safety. John Adams felt grateful, and be it understood, ever remained grateful, for the friendship of the French at a critical juncture. He urged an alliance with France. His mission proved to be more one of inspection than otherwise; he found he was not needed, and came home August 2, 1779. He then entered the Massachusetts Constitutional Convention.

In November he was again sent to Europe as a special envoy, prepared to treat for peace, if England should make the proffer. He had a perilous passage, and the unseaworthy vessel which carried him made no better landing than the Spanish port of Ferrol. Thence to Paris he was compelled to make the journey in winter amid severe hardships, the worst that attended his career. The French Minister, De Vergennes, would have chosen an envoy more docile to French wishes, and soon embroiled the outspoken and busy Bostonian in troubles that led to his disappointment. The boundaries of the United States on the land sides were matters of nearly as much importance as independence. Spain owned all the country west of the Mississippi and Florida. Should we obtain Canada? Where was the boundary line west of the Great Lakes? Should Boston vessels be allowed to fish in northern waters? To John Adams these were all burning questions. Vergennes, although he could not overthrow Mr. Adams, obtained a Commission for Peace, with Franklin, Laurens and Jay added. The posture of affairs was pe-

culiar. The Americans were ordered by Congress to act under the guidance of Vergennes, and Vergennes at this moment stood ready to sacrifice American interests in preference to those of France. Yet Congress ever reposed perfect confidence in John Adams. If he complained, something must be wrong, and Massachusetts was particularly nervous on account of her fisheries. To encourage him, he was made Minister Plenipotentiary to the United Provinces, and with famous audacity pushed the matter of recognition for America to a successful vote of the constituencies, thereby actually accomplishing what the Citizen Genet afterward threatened to do in America.

April 19, 1782, Mr. Adams was formally installed at The Hague as the Minister of a new people. Vergennes, from Paris, had secretly opposed this action, and Mr. Adams justly considered his work the greatest success of his life. "I have planted the American standard at The Hague. I shall look down upon the flagstaff with pleasure from the other world."

The situation at Paris, when Adams, Jay and Franklin met to make peace with England, was trying to the special envoy. Vergennes disliked him, and had secured the instructions from Congress which made France the actual guardian of American interests. Yet Jay and Adams outwitted him, and Franklin was so loyal to the majority idea that when Jay and Adams outvoted him, he did not reveal the American plans to Vergennes. In this way England secretly made a preliminary treaty with America, agreeing to better terms than Vergennes would have demanded, because he did not wish to magnify America, now that she was free. The English came to Mr. Adams with an oddly-worded commission. It authorized Oswald, its Commissioner, "to treat with any Commissioner or Commissioners, named or to be named by the thirteen colonies or plantations in North America, and any body or bodies, corporate or politic, or any assembly or assemblies, or description of men, or any person or persons whatso-

ever, a peace or truce with the said colonies or plantations, or any part thereof." John Adams, to start with, made the English take all those words out, and substitute "United States of America." The preliminaries were signed January 21, 1783; the definite treaties September 3 of the same year.

He was busy for nearly two years negotiating commercial treaties, and was seriously ill several times. At last he sent for his wife and daughter, and the family settled for the summer of 1784 at Auteruil, near Paris. February 24, 1785, Congress appointed him Minister to Great Britain, a mark of very high honor, which at the time probably placed him next to General Washington in the notice of his countrymen.

He returned home in April, 1788, and was undoubtedly the most impartial American there was in viewing England and France. Both nations had misused him because he was uncompromisingly true to the United States. It will be seen that he remained sufficiently grateful to France, and we may easily believe he desired to play no subservient part toward England.

He was at once chosen by the friends of the Constitution—the Federalists—as the proper nominee for Vice-President.

While the Vice-Presidency appeared to him to be "the most insignificant office that ever the invention of man contrived or his imagination conceived," it still became highly important in the time of John Adams. Hamilton now assumed full charge of the legislation of General Washington's administration. His measures met so much opposition that, on twenty occasions, the Vice-President, in a tie vote, cast the ballot which made Hamilton triumphant. This greatly pleased General Washington. Mr. Adams received 77 out of 127 votes for Vice-President at the second Presidential election, having won the cordial support of Hamilton.

At the third Presidential election, General Washington having refused to serve any longer, Mr. Adams was logically the candidate.

He retired (March, 1801) to his pleasant homestead by the roadside at Quincy, Mass. Abigail Adams, his wife, died October 28, 1818. He watched the rise of his son, John Quincy Adams, to the first office in the land. He was a Presidential Elector for James Monroe. He was nominated President of the Massachusetts-Maine Constitutional Convention when he was eighty-five years old. For years he sat on his front porch, an honored grand-sire, in a region thickly settled with kinsmen, who looked upon him as the great freeman and patriot he was, and were cheered in their pious attentions by the approval of a growing nation. At sunset on the 4th of July, 1826, after he had seen his country declared and truly free for fifty years, he whispered: "Thomas Jefferson still survives!" and gently passed away. Perhaps the tumultuous feelings of the anniversary, thronging their venerable memories alike, wrought mortally on each.

Thus died a Revolutionary Father who, from the day he joined with his kinsman, Samuel Adams, against the tyrannies of the English king, never allowed personal considerations to swerve him one hair's breadth from his first conception of the right course to pursue. He stood out in front himself, and he forced others to come out with him. He made Congress nominate General Washington; he quickened Congress in order that General Washington's army should not melt away; he forced recognition from Holland; he made the English Ministry write down the word "United States of America;" he saved this country from a dismal and dishonorable war with the nation of Lafayette, Rochambeau, D'Estaing and De Barras; he retired obediently to private life when the people determined that Thomas Jefferson represented them more certainly on minor Constitutional questions. His private fortune suffered through his public services, and he was separated for many years from those he loved at home. But, in return, he was so highly honored by his people that they placed

him next to General Washington, and gave him precedence before Thomas Jefferson, author of the Declaration of Independence.

PATRICK HENRY.

1736-1799

"GIVE ME LIBERTY OR GIVE ME DEATH."

Patrick Henry was born on the estate of Studley, in the County of Hanover, Virginia, May 29, 1736. He was not a brilliant scholar, and left his studies at fifteen, first to learn a trade, and thereafter to serve as a clerk in a country store. At eighteen, without means, he married a young woman, Sarah Shelton, who was equally impoverished. The parents established the headstrong couple on a small farm with a few slaves. In two years the husband sold the slaves at auction and set up a country store. At twenty-three he was insolvent. Thomas Jefferson, now sixteen, met him, and thought "his misfortunes were not to be traced either in his countenance or conduct." "He attached every one to him," says Jefferson.

He next concluded he would be a lawyer. How he learned his profession it has puzzled historians to say. Patrick Henry certainly made a march into legal practice the swiftest on record. He said he studied a month; some said six weeks; some dignified the period into six months; men of imagination said nine months. He arrived at Williamsburg, the capital of Virginia, almost as soon as Thomas Jefferson. He was fortunate enough to impress the remarkable qualities of his mind on John Randolph (not "John Randolph of Roanoke"), and that astute lawyer secured him the signatures of the other legal examiners. Patrick Henry related how Mr. Randolph had endeavored to out-argue him, after practicing all the arts of the attorney on the young man. "You defend yourself well, sir; but now to the law and to the testimony." Thereupon he went with

him to his office, and, searching the authorities, said to him: "Behold the force of natural reason! You have never seen these books, nor this principle of the law; yet you are right and I am wrong. And for the lesson which you have given me (you must excuse me for saying it) I will never trust to appearances again."

The young man's success as an advocate was gratifying, and it was generally admitted he had at last discovered his proper vocation. In about four years' time, or late in 1763, he defeated the celebrated "Parson's cause" in court, and at once became a celebrated Virginian.

In 1764, the seat of a member of the House of Burgesses was contested, and Patrick Henry went to the colonial capital as attorney for the sitting member. "For a day or two before the hearing of the case the members of the House had observed an ill-dressed young man sauntering in the lobby, moving awkwardly about, with a countenance of abstraction and total unconcern as to what was going on." He lost the cause before the committee, but made a deep impression as an orator.

In May, 1765, he was himself elected a member of the House of Burgesses (legislature) for a county in which he did not reside. A copy of the Stamp Act had arrived from England. On the 29th the House went into Committee of the Whole, and Patrick Henry, a new and untried member, with the foreknowledge of only two members, moved the celebrated "Virginia Resolves"—that taxation without representation was odious to English law and practice, and would have a tendency to destroy freedom. The debate was long and acrimonious. "Many threats were uttered, and much abuse cast on me," said Patrick Henry. "Torrents of sublime eloquence from Mr. Henry" are recorded. Reaching a climax of invective, he paused, and said with solemnity: "Cæsar had his Brutus; Charles the First his Cromwell; and George the Third ('Treason!') shouted the Speaker of the



PATRICK HENRY

House. 'Treason! Treason!' came from all parts of the hall)—and George the Third may profit by their example. If this be treason, make the most of it." The resolutions, after two days of debate, passed the Virginia House. They had been cut down in number, which modified their tone, but a manuscript copy of Patrick Henry's resolutions soon reached New York City, where they "were handed about with great privacy." They were accounted so treasonable that the possessors of them declined printing them in that city. They reached New England, where the Sons of Liberty were prompt to give them wide circulation. In the papers accompanying his will, Patrick Henry left the original manuscript of the "Virginia Resolves." "They formed," he wrote, "the first opposition to the Stamp Act." "Finding that no person was likely to step forth. I determined to venture; and alone, unadvised and unassisted, on a blank leaf of an old law book, wrote the within."

For nine years the troubles of the colonies increased. During that time Patrick Henry was a member of the House, and at last a member of the Committee of Correspondence with Boston. After Governor Dunmore dissolved the House, Patrick Henry was the leader of the revolutionary body. George Washington wrote: "He is by far the most powerful speaker I ever heard. But his eloquence is the smallest part of his merit. He is, in my opinion, the first man upon this Continent, as well in abilities as public virtues." Late in August, 1774, with Colonel George Washington and Edmund Pendleton, Patrick Henry left Virginia for the First Continental Congress. Roger Atkinson, of Petersburg, wrote, describing Henry as a delegate: "Patrick Henry is a real half-Quaker—your brother's man—moderate and mild, and in religious matters a saint, but the very devil in politics; a son of thunder. He will shake the Senate. Some years ago he had liked to talk treason into the House."

Charles Thomson, Secretary of Congress, described Patrick Henry as "dressed in a suit of parson's gray, and from his appearance I took him for a Presbyterian clergyman, used to haranguing the people." In his first speech he said: "The distinctions between Virginians, Pennsylvanians, New Yorkers and New Englanders are no more. I am not a Virginian, but an American."

On the 28th of September began the debate on Galloway's plan of reconciliation, which was opposed by Massachusetts and Virginia, but defeated by a vote of only six colonies to five. Patrick Henry made a fierce assault on the scheme of quasi-home-rule. As they parted from the Congress, John Adams read to Patrick Henry the contents of a letter from Major Hawley, of Massachusetts, which concluded: "After all, we must fight." Mr. Henry had his head down. "He raised his head, and with an energy and vehemence that I can never forget, broke out with: 'By G—, I am of that man's mind!'" This is the only oath that is on record as coming from the lips of Patrick Henry.

Returning from Philadelphia in the autumn of 1774, Patrick Henry, when he next appeared before the public, at the old church in Richmond, on the 23d of March, 1775, as a member of the Second Revolutionary Convention of Virginia, made the immortal speech upon which his fame popularly rests. This oration, perfectly stationed in the drama of bloody events that was to follow, offers almost the only recorded example of adequate eloquence outside the pages of the sublimest poets. As an actual happening in actual life, it will ever thrill the student of history and exalt the lover of patriotism. The resolutions under debate authorized "a well-regulated militia" for the defense of the colony. Patrick Henry thought there was too much opposition to the resolutions and he seems to have charged upon that sentiment with the very highest powers of his mind. The early portion of the speech is full of well-turned sentences of indubitable

truth and sound sense. "This is no time for ceremony," he said. "The question is one of awful moment to this country"—"freedom or slavery. And in proportion to the magnitude of the subject ought to be the freedom of the debate." "Should I keep back my opinions at such a time, through fear of giving offense, I should consider myself as guilty of treason toward my country, and of an act of disloyalty toward the majesty of Heaven, which I revere above all earthly kings." "It is natural in man to indulge in the illusions of hope. We are apt to shut our eyes against a painful truth, and listen to the song of that siren till she transforms us into beasts."

"I have but one lamp by which my feet are guided, and that is the lamp of experience. I know of no way of judging the future but by the past." "Ask yourselves how this gracious reception of our petition comports with those warlike preparations which cover our waters and darken our lands. Are fleets and armies necessary to a work of love and reconciliation? Have we shown ourselves so unwilling to be reconciled that force must be called in to win back our love? Let us not deceive ourselves, sir. These are the implements of war and subjugation—the last argument to which kings resort."

"Shall we resort to entreaty and humble supplication? What terms shall we find which have not been already exhausted?" "We have petitioned; we have remonstrated; we have supplicated; we have prostrated ourselves before the throne, and have implored its interposition to arrest the tyrannical hands of the Ministry and Parliament. Our petitions have been slighted; our remonstrances have produced additional violence and insult; our supplications have been disregarded; and we have been spurned with contempt from the foot of the throne."

"There is no longer any room for hope (of peace). If we wish to be free," "we must fight! I repeat it, sir, we must fight! An appeal to arms, and to the God of Hosts is all that is left to us."

To this point in the address, of which the above are only striking sentences, all was deliberate and self-constrained.

An aged clergyman related the following: "Henry rose with unearthly fire burning in his eyes. He commenced somewhat calmly, but the smothered excitement began more and more to play upon his features and thrill in the tones of his voice. The tendons of his neck stood out white and rigid, like whiplcords. His voice rose louder and louder, until the walls of the building, and all within them, seemed to shake and rock in its tremendous vibrations. Finally, his pale face and glaring eye became terrible to look upon. Men leaned forward in their seats, with their heads strained forward, their faces pale, and their eyes glaring, like the speaker's." The hearer felt sick with excitement.

Patrick Henry continued, with increasing fury of words: "They tell us, sir, that we are weak—unable to cope with so formidable an adversary. But when shall we be stronger?" "Shall we acquire the means of effectual resistance by lying supinely on our backs, and hugging the delusive phantom of hope, until our enemies have bound us hand and foot?" He next sums up the very considerable power of the colonies. "Besides, sir, we shall not fight our battles alone. There is a just God who presides over the destinies of nations, and who will raise up friends to fight our battles for us. The battle, sir, is not to the strong alone; it is to the vigilant, the active, the brave. Besides, sir, we have no election. If we were base enough to desire it, it is now too late to retire from the contest. There is no retreat, but in submission and slavery. Our chains are forged. Their clanking may be heard on the plains of Boston. The war is inevitable. And let it come! I repeat it, sir, let it come! It is in vain, sir, to extenuate the matter. Gentlemen may cry peace, peace, but there is no peace. The war is actually begun. The next gale that sweeps from the north will bring to our ears the clash of resounding arms. Why stand we here idle? What is it

that gentlemen wish? What would they have? Is life so dear, or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God! I know not what course others may take, but as for me, give me liberty, or give me death!"

When Patrick Henry sat down, every eye yet gazed entranced upon him. It is said that he enacted the bent form of the slave bearing his gyves and manacles of iron; that as he closed, he straightened his form, threw off his slavery, and gave the impression of having a dagger in his hand, to be aimed at his own heart. All the hearers agreed that the tones of his voice were deep with awe and the gaze of his eyes full of splendor—something altogether different from the most highly-excited expressions of other men. The effect was complete. Everything was done by vote that he asked for, and he himself was made the chairman, to see that the legislative action should be carried into effect.

"The first overt act of war in Virginia," says Thomas Jefferson, "was committed by Patrick Henry." He was the captain of an independent company of militia. Governor Dunmore had removed some powder. Patrick Henry marched on Williamsburg and compelled the Receiver General to pay an indemnity of \$1,650. The Governor thereupon issued a proclamation against "a certain Patrick Henry and a number of deluded followers" who had "put themselves in a posture of war. This would "call for the vengeance of offended majesty," and all subjects were warned "not to abet or give countenance to the said Patrick Henry." He was now acclaimed as the logical leader of the patriots, and nearly every company sent him a message of congratulation touching the powder episode. In May, 1775, however, he set off for the Second Congress, where he took little interest. In August he returned and was made Colonel and Commander of the Virginia troops. His relations with the civil committee of safety were unpleasant, and he soon resigned, to the great grief of the

militia, who parted with him as their true and rightful leader. Early in March, 1776, his wife, Sarah, mother of six children, died. He thereafter returned to the Third Virginia Convention. His hope of a French alliance was keen from the first, and he urged measures to bring it about, or make it easy. "May we not lose her?" "The French alliance is everything." On July 5, 1776, he became the first elected Governor of Virginia, and took up his residence in the palace that had been vacated by Lord Dunmore. He was re-elected in 1777, and on the 9th of October married Dorothea Dandridge, who was considerably his junior—he was now forty-one. During his second term efforts were made by the secret members of the Conway cabal to wean Governor Henry away from the support of General Washington, who had suffered a number of defeats. The loyal action of the Governor, in at once sending warning to the General, together with the sentiments of his letters at that time, reflect the highest honor upon both his judgment and his affection.

"I really think your personal welfare and the happiness of America are intimately connected." "The most exalted merit has ever been found to attract envy." To these expressions of regard and solicitude General Washington responded warmly, and his admiration for Patrick Henry never lessened.

Governor Henry was re-elected in 1778. His third term was disastrously marked at its very close by the British invasion of Virginia. The Governor was an efficient aid to General Washington, whose letters to Patrick Henry abound with testimonies of high approval and recognition. He declined a re-election as Governor, being annoyed with long-continued charges that he entertained an usurper's ambitions.

He owned a new estate of 10,000 acres, called Leatherwood, southwest from Richmond, along the North Carolina boundary, in the county of Henry, named after himself. To this "wild and mountainous solitude" he at once removed, making it his home for five

years. He wrote to Thomas Jefferson, now Governor, in denunciation of Tories. They were "miscreants—wretches who, I am satisfied, were laboring our destruction. They should be shunned and execrated, and this is the only way to supply the place of legal conviction and punishment." He was elected to the Assembly in 1780, but was compelled to leave in poor health. He returned for the winter of 1780-81, when the Legislature retreated before Benedict Arnold, the traitor, now making war on Virginia. The members adjourned to Charlottesville, and thence actually fled over the mountains to Staunton. The traditions of Virginia are illuminated with a well-wrought series of stories seemingly made at the expense of Patrick Henry, yet all reflecting the admiration that was everywhere felt for him as the first Virginia patriot. In the head-long flight from Charlottesville, the fugitives broke into small parties, one of these being composed of Benjamin Harrison, Colonel William Christian, John Tyler and Patrick Henry. Weary with travel, late in the day, they halted before a hut in the gorge and asked for food. An aged woman asked them who they were. Patrick Henry answered that they were members of the Legislature, compelled to leave Charlottesville on the approach of the enemy. "Ride on, then, ye cowardly knaves," cried the ancient dame, in wrath; "here have my husband and sons just gone to Charlottesville to fight for ye, and you running away with all your might. Clear out—ye shall have nothing here." "But," expostulated Patrick Henry, "it would not do for the Legislature to be broken up by the enemy. Here is Mr. Speaker Harrison; you don't think he would have fled had it not been necessary?" "I always thought a great deal of Mr. Harrison till now, but he'd no business to run from the enemy" (starting to close her door). "Wait a moment, my good woman," urged Mr. Henry; "you would hardly believe that Mr. Tyler or Mr. Christian would take to flight if there were not good reason for it?" "No, indeed, that I

wouldn't." "But Mr. Tyler and Colonel Christian are here." "They here?" she said, as if in doubt. "Well, I never would have thought it! No matter. We love these gentlemen, and I didn't suppose they would ever run away from the British. But since they have, they shall have nothing to eat in my house. You may ride along." Now Mr. Tyler stepped forward: "What would you say, my good woman, if I were to tell you that Patrick Henry fled with the rest of us?" "Patrick Henry! I should tell you there wasn't a word of truth in it!" she replied with rising anger. "Patrick Henry would never do such a cowardly thing!" "But this is Patrick Henry!" said Mr. Tyler, pointing to him. The old woman started, twitched her apron-string convulsively, and surrendered: "Well, then, if it's Patrick Henry, it must be all right. Come in, and ye shall have the best I've got."

In 1784 and 1785 the favorite son of Virginia was called upon to serve two more terms as Governor, retiring on his own demand to recuperate his fortune. He refused to attend the convention at Philadelphia which formulated the Constitution of the United States, and his attitude led General Washington to greatly fear that Virginia would reject that document. So deep was the anxiety of the Father of His Country that he sent a copy of the instrument with an entreating letter to his old friend. But General Washington could not silence Patrick Henry's scruples, and it was doubtless his valiant opposition that led to the first ten amendments. He came down to the Virginia convention to make a bitter fight against adoption, and spoke often on eighteen days of the debate. He made one speech seven hours long. He made eight speeches in one day, five in another. He used the word "secession," but denied that he approved such an act. He wanted a new convention. The President, Patrick Henry thought, might become King.

Although he was outvoted, and the Constitution was adopted by Virginia, it was seen that the amendments which

he desired must be conceded, for his prestige continued to increase under defeat. He made imperative the demands of Virginia on Congress. Lear, secretary to General Washington, sorrowfully recounted Patrick Henry's triumphs at this time (1789): "In plain English, he ruled a majority of the Assembly; and his edicts were registered by that body with less opposition than those of the Grand Monarque have met with from his Parliaments. He chose the two Senators. He divided the State into districts" (gerrymandering so as to exclude James Madison from Congress). "And after he had settled everything relative to the Government wholly, I suppose, to his satisfaction, he mounted his horse and rode home, leaving the little business of the State to be done by anybody who chose to give themselves the trouble of attending to it." Congress unwillingly responded, and the first ten amendments stand to-day as the necessary concessions made to the apprehensive patriotism of Patrick Henry.

Through all the years from 1786 to 1794, when he retired with a competence, he was an advocate without peer at the bar of Virginia. He retired in 1795 to an estate called Red Hill, in Charlotte County, and there he spent the last four years of his life, the people proud of his fame, and boastful that his like had never before lived among the eloquent. It was said that he would stand on an eminence and give commands to his servants "in tones as melodious as an Alpine horn," his enunciation being so clear that he might be understood in every part of a space that would have held 50,000 people. He, like Shakespeare, sought rather to show his wealth in acres than to receive homage for his eloquence. He was highly abstemious and religious. It disconcerted and grieved the greatest of the fathers to see this giant of liberty cold to the new nation, yet, as the smaller gentry of critics assembled to annoy George Washington, Patrick Henry increased his tributes of veneration for the Father of His Country; therefore efforts did not cease to attach

the old wheelhorse to the new car of Liberty. He was made United States Senator, but declined; Washington fruitlessly tendered him the portfolio of Secretary of State; later the Father offered the great office of Chief Justice of the United States. They elected him Governor for the sixth time. All of these flattering offers Patrick Henry put aside. John Adams ascended to the presidency, and, casting off all party ties, nominated Patrick Henry as one of the envoys to France, believing the French nation must generously welcome such a patriot. The health of the statesman was too feeble to permit him to re-enter public life. But he was at last in full harmony with the Federalists, and at the personal request of General Washington, Patrick Henry, in March, 1799, went to the hustings and stood as a candidate for the Legislature. This was an act of extraordinary generosity. Vast crowds from all over Virginia came forth when it was heard that the renowned orator would once more lift his voice. He counseled obedience to Federal laws, and told the people they had planted thorns upon his pillow and called him forth from a happy retirement, to see if he could not prevent civil discord. "Where," he asked, "is the citizen of America who would dare to lift his hand against the Father of His Country?" A drunken man cried out that he would dare. "No," cried the feeble orator, rising once more to his full majesty, "you dare not do it. In such a parricidal attempt the steel would drop from your nerveless arm!"

The young John Randolph, of Roanoke, followed in a speech, as the candidate of the opposing party. While he was speaking Patrick Henry retired into the tavern. When the young man returned to the room where the patriot was resting, the latter took him by the hand, saying with great kindness: "Young man, you call me father. Then, my son, I have something to say unto thee: Keep justice, keep truth—and you will live to think differently." The poll resulted in a great majority for Patrick Henry.

It may be believed that the patriotic

effort of Patrick Henry, to which he was moved by the entreaties of General Washington, was more than his feeble body would bear, and it is probable that his infirmity had been courageously concealed, even from the Father of His Country. Patrick Henry returned to his bed and never left it, and died on the 6th of June, 1799.

OLIVER HAZARD PERRY.

1785-1819.

Oliver Hazard Perry was born at South Kensington, Rhode Island, on the 23d of August, 1785. He was the son of Christopher Perry, who served in the Revolutionary War, first in the army and then in the navy.

As a child, Oliver H. Perry quickly made friends with all strangers, showing a fearlessness of danger. We shall see that he kept this same fearlessness all through his life.

He first went to school to a neighbor who taught a few children until they were old enough to go to school to Lower Hill, four miles from the Perry home.

When about seven years of age the family moved to Newport, and Oliver went to school at this place, where Mr. Frazer, the master, took quite an interest in him. For five years he continued his studies, among which was navigation. When twelve years old the Perrys moved to Westerly, a little village in the southwestern part of Rhode Island.

For five years Oliver had been a faithful pupil of Mr. Frazer, and he was now far advanced for his years.

About this time our country having trouble with France and England, Captain Christopher Perry was given command of the new war vessel, the General Grant, and Oliver, not quite thirteen years of age, received an appointment of midshipman on his father's vessel. It was here that Oliver was taught his lessons of naval honor. He also applied the lesson in navigation which he had learned from Mr. Frazer.

During 1799 and 1800 the General

Grant cruised to and from the West Indies, protecting the American trade. Terms of peace having been arranged with France, it was decided by the Government to dispose of nearly all the naval vessels. As a result, many of the captains and midshipmen were dismissed, Captain Perry being one of the number.

Fortunately for the country, young Oliver was retained as midshipman. In 1802, with the squadron commanded by Commodore Morris, sent to the Barbary States, was the Adams. On this vessel was Oliver Perry as midshipman. Soon after the arrival of his ship in the Mediterranean Oliver celebrated his seventeenth birthday, and he was appointed lieutenant on that day.

When Commodore Morris was recalled he returned in the Adams, and it so happened that in November, 1803, Oliver Perry arrived again in America. His father was then living in Newport, and Oliver remained at home until July of the next year. In September, 1804, he was ordered to return in the Constellation to the Mediterranean. The troubles in the Barbary States being settled, in October, 1806, Oliver Perry returned to America.

During these times the continued depredations of the English upon American commerce caused President Jefferson, who was a man of peace, to call a special session of Congress to see if the trouble could not be settled without war. As a result of this session, a law was passed known as the Embargo Act. In order to enforce this law, Congress ordered a number of gunboats to be built. These were to sail up and down the coast and prevent any vessel from entering or leaving the ports.

Lieutenant Perry was ordered to superintend the building of a fleet of these gunboats at Newport. After they were built he was put in command of them, and ordered to patrol Long Island Sound.

At this time the Government wanted a map of the harbors in the neighborhood of Newport. On account of his standing as a seaman, and of his edu-



O. H. PERRY

cation, Lieutenant Perry was selected to visit the harbors and make such a map.

On May 5, 1811, he was married to Elizabeth Champlin Mason. He took a wedding journey through New England, visiting the place where his Quaker ancestors had lived so many years before.

On June 18, 1812, the formal declaration of war was declared against England.

Lieutenant Perry, being in command of the flotilla of gunboats on the Newport station, offered his services for the lakes, and early in February, 1813, a letter to him from Commodore Chauncey said: "You are the very person I want for a particular service, in which you may gain reputation for yourself and honor for your country." That service was the command of a naval force on Lake Erie, and on the 17th of February Perry received orders from the Secretary of the Navy to report to Chauncey with all possible dispatch, and to take with him to Sackett's Harbor all of the best men of the flotilla at Newport. He sent them forward at once in companies of fifty under sailing masters Almy, Champlin and Taylor, and followed them in a sleigh. He met Chauncey at Albany, and they journeyed together in a sleigh through the dark wilderness to Sackett's Harbor. A fortnight afterward (March, 1813) Perry went to Presque Isle (now Erie, Pa.) to hasten the construction and equipment of a little navy there, to co-operate with General Harrison for the recovery of Michigan.

Four vessels were speedily built at Erie and five others were taken to that sheltered harbor from Black Rock, below Buffalo, where Henry Eckford had fashioned merchant vessels into warriors. The little fleet of nine vessels were all ready at Erie early in July, and the flagship was named the *Lawrence*, in compliment to the gallant commander of the *Chesapeake*, who had just given his life to his country. But men and supplies were wanting, and Perry had to wait weeks, in great impatience, before he could get out on

the lake to meet a British squadron that was cruising there under Commodore Barclay. That squadron seriously menaced the fleet at Presque Isle, while Perry chafed under compulsory idleness. Late in July he wrote to Chauncey: "For God's sake and yours and mine, send me men and officers and I will have them all (the British vessels) in a day or two . . . Our sails are bent, provisions on board, and, in fact, everything is ready. Barclay has been bearding me for several days; I long to be at him. . . . Think of my situation—the enemy in sight, the vessels under my command more than sufficient and ready to make sail, and yet obliged to bite my fingers with vexation for want of men."

Meanwhile the tardy government and stay-at-home citizens were calling loudly upon Perry and Harrison to "do something," and the former, fretted by these implied complaints, having been reinforced by about one hundred men under Captain Elliot, went out upon the lake with his little fleet early in August, before he was fairly prepared for vigorous combat. He determined to report to Harrison that he was ready for co-operation with him, and on the 17th day of August, when off Sandusky Bay, he fired signal guns, according to agreement. Late on the evening of the 19th Harrison and his suite arrived in boats and went on board the *Lawrence*, where arrangements were made for the fall campaign in that quarter. Harrison had then about eight thousand militia, regulars and Indians, at Camp Seneca, a little more than twenty miles from the lake. While he was waiting for Harrison to prepare his army for transportation to Malden, Perry cruised about the lake. Then he lay quietly at anchor in Put-in-Bay for a few days. On a bright and beautiful morning, the 10th of September, the sentinel watching in the maintop of the *Lawrence* cried, "Sail ho!" It announced the appearance of the British fleet, clearly seen in the northwestern horizon. The sentinel's cry was followed by signals from the *Lawrence* to the

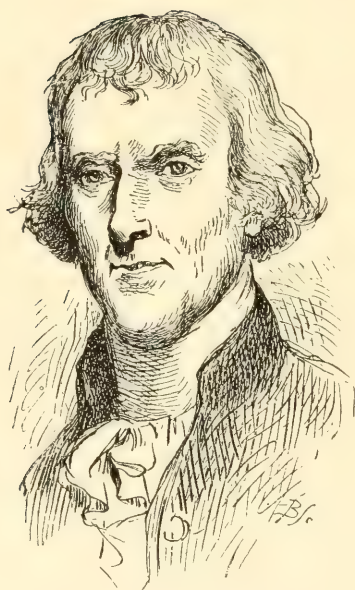
rest of the fleet: "Enemy in sight. Get under way," and the shout of the boatswains, "All hands up anchor, ahoy!" Perry's nine vessels were the brigs *Lawrence*, 20; *Niagara*, 20; *Caledonia*, 3. Schooners *Ariel*, 4; *Scorpion*, 1; and sloop *Trippe*, 1; in all fifty-four carriage guns and two swivels. Barclay's fleet consisted of the flagship *Detroit*, the *Queen Charlotte*, *Lady Prevost*, *Hunter*, *Little Belt* and *Chippewa*, carrying six carriage guns, two swivels and four howitzers. At the masthead of the *Lawrence* Perry displayed a blue banner with the reported last words of Captain Lawrence, "Don't give up the ship!" displayed upon it in large white letters.

The two squadrons slowly approached each other, and at noon the battle began at long range—the *Scorpion*, commanded by young Champlin, then less than twenty-four years of age, firing the first shot on the American side. Nearer and nearer the vessels approached each other; hotter and hotter waxed the fight. For two hours the *Lawrence* bore the brunt of battle, with twice her force, until, like the *Guerriere*, she lay upon the waters an almost total wreck. Her rigging was all shot away; her sails were cut into shreds; her spars were battered into splinters, and her guns were dismounted. One mast remained, and from it the Stars and Stripes were streaming. A less hopeful man than Perry would have pulled them down and surrendered, for his deck was a scene of dreadful carnage. Meanwhile most of the other vessels had been fighting gallantly excepting the staunch *Niagara*, Captain Elliot, which kept outside and was unhurt. As this lagging brig drew near, Perry determined to fly to her and renewing the fight gain a victory. In token of his faith he put on the uniform of his rank, as if conscious he should receive Barclay as a prisoner. Then taking down his broad pennant and the banner with the stirring words, he entered his boat with his little brother, fourteen years of age, and four stout seaman for the oars, and started on his perilous voyage, anx-

iously watched by Lieutenant Yarnell and a few others, who had been left in charge of the battered *Lawrence*. Perry stood upright in his boat with the pennant and banner partly wrapped around him, a conspicuous mark for the guns of the enemy. Barclay, who was badly wounded, knew that if Perry, who had fought the *Lawrence* so gallantly, should tread the decks of the staunch *Niagara* as commander, the British would be in danger of defeat; so he ordered big and little guns to be brought to bear upon the boat that bore the young hero. The voyage lasted fifteen minutes. The oars were splintered, bullets traversed the little vessel and round, and grape shot falling near covered his oarsmen with spray. But he reached the *Niagara* in safety. Hoisting his pennant over that vessel, he dashed through the British line, and eight minutes afterward the colors of the enemy's flagship were struck, and all but two of the fleet surrendered. These attempted to escape. They were pursued and brought back by the brave young Champlin in the *Scorpion* late in the evening. He had fired the *first* gun at the opening of the battle, and now he had fired the *last* one in securing the conquered vessels. The victory was complete. Assured of triumph, Perry sat down and, resting his naval cap on his knee, wrote with a lead pencil on the back of a letter, this famous dispatch to General Harrison: "We have met the enemy and they are ours; two ships, two brigs, one schooner and one sloop.

"Yours, with great respect,
O. H. PERRY."

The news of this victory carried joy to the hearts of the Americans. The lakes had echoed the triumphs of the ocean. The name of Perry was made immortal. His government, in the name of the people, thanked him and gave him and Elliot each a gold medal. States and cities honored him. The Legislature of Pennsylvania voted him thanks and a gold medal, and they gave the thanks of the Commonwealth and a silver medal to each man who



THOMAS JEFFERSON

was engaged in the battle. The loss of the Americans in the conflict on Lake Erie, considering the small number engaged, was very severe—twenty-seven killed and ninety-six wounded. The British lost about two hundred in killed and wounded, and six hundred made prisoners. Perry's humane conduct toward the captives was such that Barclay declared it was sufficient to immortalize him.

On November 29, 1813, he received his promotion to the rank of Captain. At that time this was the highest rank in the American navy.

In August, 1814, he was ordered to command a new frigate named the *Java*. He hastened to Baltimore, where this vessel was to be launched. Congress passed a bill to fit out two squadrons of fast sailing vessels. These were to cruise near the English coasts and destroy the commerce between the different ports.

Captain Perry was ordered to leave the *Java* and command one of these squadrons. But before he could sail for England peace was declared. A treaty with that country was signed December 24, 1814.

The history of Captain Perry from now on was uneventful; he served with distinction in the Mediterranean against the Barbary powers, returning to his home in Newport in March, 1817, to live a quiet life with his family.

On March 31, 1819, he was summoned to Washington and was given command of an expedition to Venezuela to present claims to the President of that country to recover losses to American shipping from seizures of American vessels by Venezuelan privateers.

He reached the mouth of the Orinoco River July 15, 1819. Here he was obliged to take the small schooner in order to go up the river to reach the town of Angostura, which was then the Venezuelan capital.

The weather was intensely hot, and many of the crew were taken ill with yellow fever, but Perry would not leave until his mission was accomplished. After three weeks of delay

he succeeded in getting the promises for which he had come.

On the return to his flagship he was taken with a chill and showed symptoms of yellow fever. Within a mile of the *John Adams* Captain Perry died on his thirty-fourth birthday, August 23, 1819.

He was buried on the island of Trinidad with military honors, and the *John Adams* brought back the sad news to the United States. His death was regarded as a national calamity. The Government sent a war vessel to bring his body home. He was finally laid to rest at Newport, where a granite monument marks his grave.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

1743-1826.

THE IDEAL DEMOCRAT.

Thomas Jefferson was born April 13, 1743, on the estate where he lived and died. It was in the end called Monticello, and lies on the waters of the Roanoke. His father, Peter, was an original settler. His mother, who was Jane Randolph, traced her "pedigree far back in England and Scotland, to which," says the great Democrat, "let everyone ascribe the faith and merit he chooses." The son went to English school at five, and to Greek, Latin and French at nine. His father died when he was fourteen, bequeathing to Thomas Jefferson the Roanoke River estate. After this event the son went to study with the Rev. Mr. Maury. After two years of preparation with Mr. Maury the pupil entered William and Mary College, where he studied for two years. Here is a day's programme of study, drawn up and recommended by him: Before 8 a. m., physical studies; 8 to 12, law; 12 to 1, politics; afternoon, history; "dark to bedtime," literature, oratory, etc.

His father's death left him in the position of an independent country gentleman, with an income of \$2,000 a year. At the time of his admission to the bar he was described by his con-

temporaries as 6 feet 2 inches in height, slim without attenuation, erect as an arrow, with angular features, a very ruddy complexion, an extremely delicate skin, full, deep-set hazel eyes and sandy hair, an expert violinist, a good dancer, a dashing rider, and proficient in all manly exercises. He was, and continued through life, frank, cordial, and sympathetic in his manner, full of confidence in men, and sanguine in his views of life.

On the 1st of January, 1772, he was married to Martha Skelton, widow of Bathurst Skelton, then twenty-three years old. She very soon brought to her husband a patrimony equal to his own, which consequently doubled the ease of their circumstances.

At Williamsburg, Patrick Henry was the acknowledged leader of the young men, and when Boston port was sealed (1774) the young Virginians thought a day of fasting and prayer would arouse and alarm the more lethargic of their fellows to a sense of the British despotism. A (revolutionary) Convention of Virginia was called for August 1, 1774. Jefferson prepared a draft of instructions which he hoped should be given to the delegates whom this convention would send to the Continental Congress, but, falling ill, sent a copy to Patrick Henry, which he pocketed; another copy went to Peyton Randolph, who showed it to the members; they printed it in pamphlet form under the title of "A Summary View of the Rights of British America." It was sent to England, and there became the text-book of the Opposition to the Government. The name of Jefferson was placed on the secret rolls of proscription, for the document was practically another statement of the wrongs catalogued two years later in the Declaration of Independence.

In June, 1775, the Burgesses sent Jefferson to Congress to take the place vacated by Peyton Randolph. Jefferson returned to Virginia; came again in the autumn and went. In the Virginian Convention, where Patrick Henry pushed the cause of independence rapidly forward, Jefferson was in

highest repute, and when next, in May, 1776, he traveled to Philadelphia, he carried instructions that the Virginia delegates should move that Congress declare "the United Colonies free and independent States." In the meantime two highly important committees were formed—one to prepare a Declaration, the other to draw up articles of Confederation. The work of the second committee was done over again in 1789. The perfect labors of the first committee have been the theme of Freedom's poets from that time on.

The literary history of the Declaration of Independence is meager. The accounts of both Jefferson and John Adams are brief; Dr. Franklin said nothing about it. The other two committeemen, Sherman and Livingston, did not touch it. Nevertheless, although Thomas Jefferson was twice President of the United States, father of Democracy in America, and withal a moral teacher of politics without equal in the world, he stands before the people, from the time they enter school to old age, as the author of the Declaration of Independence. There can be no error, on this account, in reciting all that is known touching the composition of the original document.

On June 11 Congress balloted for a committee of five, and Jefferson led the poll, with Adams and Franklin next in order. Jefferson and Adams each politely asked the other to write the manifesto, but it was tacitly understood that the honor rightly belonged to Virginia, and to the author of the "Summary Statement," whose terms were now satisfactory to a majority of the colonies. The phrases employed by Jefferson were purposely chosen from the accepted sayings of the time, and nothing could have given better evidence of the statesman's genius. In his autobiography, beyond submitting the facsimile of the original draft, Jefferson vouchsafes no history of his labor. He says: "The committee desired me to do it. It was accordingly done, and being approved by them, I reported it to the House on Friday, the 28th of June, when it was read and ordered

to lie on the table." He says elsewhere that he submitted the draft separately to Dr. Franklin and John Adams, each of whom suggested a few alterations, which were interlined in their own hands. The committee adopted this draft, whereafter Jefferson drew off a fair copy for Congress.

The original instrument is written in a very fine hand on four foolscap sheets of writing-paper. The Declaration was reported by committee, agreed to by the House, and signed by every member present except Mr. Dickinson. Be it said to the honor of the constituents of this man, that he misrepresented them, and was not allowed to return to Congress.

The Declaration of Independence, as it stands, is practically the handiwork of Thomas Jefferson.

Satisfied with the honor that had come to him in Congress, and feeling that the new laws of Virginia needed his formative care, Mr. Jefferson resigned his seat at Philadelphia and took a laboring oar at Williamsburg in October, 1776.

In January, 1779, Patrick Henry had reached the limit of his constitutional eligibility as Governor, and Mr. Jefferson was compelled to take his place, with the legacy of an invasion by the British. Governor Jefferson went out of office with Virginia under the heel of the marauding British, and was in bitter humor. His wife also was seriously ill. He would not return to the Legislature, and caused his admirers, Madison and Monroe, serious misgivings. The death of his wife was a blow from which he was slow to recover, and few husbands have exhibited a sense of desolation so poignant. While immersed in this grief he was thrice appointed to go to Europe as commissioner, but declined. In June, 1783, however, he felt it necessary to re-enter public life, and carried, as delegate from Virginia, the deed of that colony, presenting all her western lands to the United States. He signed the treaty of independence.

In May, 1784, he was a fourth time appointed to a foreign mission, and

this time he accepted, and sailed with his daughter Martha, whom he placed in a convent school in France.

The Constitution had been made behind closed doors at Philadelphia, and Jefferson first saw a complete copy of it at Paris. He who had been so alert in formulating the laws of his own State seems to have regarded the Constitution of the nation as a matter of lesser moment, or at least one that could be safely intrusted to the care of his friends—Madison and Monroe. He praised the instrument as a whole, but found articles which he thought objectionable. "The absence of express declarations insuring freedom of religion, freedom of the press, freedom of the person under the uninterrupted protection of habeas corpus, and trial by jury in civil as well as criminal cases, excited my jealousy, and the re-eligibility of the President for life I quite disapprove." He also looked upon the all-powerful judicial arm of the new Government with undisguised fear that therein lay the germ of future dissolution, although he did not offer practical suggestions looking to a betterment of the plan. In the end, feeling that amendment would perfect the work so well begun, he became an indorser of the new Constitution, and thereby won a warm place in the esteem of General Washington, who regarded the question of adoption as quite personal to himself and essential to his country.

It became necessary for Thomas Jefferson to accompany John Adams to the English King's levees at London, and there the great Democrat was stung with the insulting deportment of the monarch and his consort.

Thomas Jefferson came home, on leave of absence, late in 1789, an ardent well-wisher of the French patriots, a friend of France, to whom, as successor and follower of his revered Dr. Franklin, he considered that his own nation owed almost its life. General Washington had been elected President, and practically commanded Jefferson to lay aside his foreign mission and accept the highest place in the Cabinet—the Secretaryship of State.

The Democratic party had grown to such an extent when General Washington refused a third term of the presidency, that the proponents of John Adams, in securing to him the first place, lost the second to Jefferson.

In the autumn of 1800 Jefferson and Burr won seventy-three electors each, and the choice fell to the House of Representatives to see which candidate should be President. After a violent strain on the then clumsy Constitution, Jefferson was named, Hamilton making it possible (greatly to his credit). The balloting lasted seven days. John Adams, outraged in every fiber of his being, appointed Federalists till midnight of March 3, 1801, and then took horse to escape from an atmosphere which for so many coming years was to be Democratic. Washington was dead. There was no other person for whose personal feelings Thomas Jefferson was willing to waive certain forms of Democracy which he desired to see established.

Dressed in plain clothes, he rode to the capital on horseback, without guard or servant, dismounted and hitched his horse to the fence.

At the end of four years he regretfully announced his candidacy for a second term. He was re-elected by the astonishing vote of 162 to 14 electors. He longed for private life, and though five States requested him to serve a third term, he firmly rejected the proposal, offering instead the example of himself and General Washington as likely to supply a defect of the Constitution and preserve the nation from the ambition of a would-be usurper.

There followed in the life of this sage seventeen years of old age at Monticello, during which time his beloved pupils were Presidents of the United States, and the Government was carried on, as he would have it, in the best interests of the masses. That trust which the great plain people had so confidently reposed in the Father of His Country while he lived, was placed, with even a still warmer and keener affection, in Thomas Jefferson, and he

remained till death the chief man in the Republic.

His health broke rapidly in the winter of 1826, his eighty-third year. In the middle of March he made his will and prepared the original draft of the Declaration of Independence for posterity. Later he read the Bible and the Greek tragedies. He expressed a desire, as he grew very feeble with old age, to survive till the Fourth of July, and the friends around his dying bed awaited the dawn of that celebrated day with affectionate anxiety, seeming to burden themselves only with this sacred hope of the grandsire. His wish was gratified, but he had sunk very low, and expired at 1 o'clock in the afternoon, preceding John Adams but a few hours in his exit.

JAMES MADISON.

1751-1836.

FATHER OF THE CONSTITUTION.

James Madison was born March 16, 1751, at Port Conway, King George County, Virginia, while his mother was visiting her parents. His father was a planter, and dwelt on the estate called Montpelier, which afterward became the home also of the son, who was the first-born of seven children. James went to a school under the mastership of Donald Robertson, a learned Scotchman. The clergyman of the parish, the Rev. Thomas Martin, of New Jersey, was a member of the Madison family, and as tutor prepared James for Princeton College, to which he was doubtless recommended by the clerical gentleman. James entered Princeton at eighteen, and, by unusual and unhealthy application, compressed the studies of two years into one, taking an extra year in Hebrew. In 1771 he was given the degree of Bachelor of Arts, and returned to the Rappahannock River broken in health and crippled in ambition. Theological studies had taken possession of his intellect, and, many years after Patrick Henry had forced

the Virginia Resolves on the House of Burgesses, James Madison was more interested in religious controversies than in taxation without representation.

He regarded his election as a delegate to the Virginia Convention of 1776 as his first entrance into public life. Here Jefferson had become the dominating force. Beside ordering the Virginia delegates in Congress to vote for a Declaration of Independence, the home convention made a Bill of Rights and a Constitution. Into the Bill of Rights Madison entered religious freedom as a "right" and not a "privilege tolerated." He was elected to the first Assembly, but because he did not stand for office in the customary fashion, by "treating" and public solicitation at the market price, he was defeated for the second Assembly. But already his fame as a learned man—for he could study twenty out of twenty-four hours, even exceeding Jefferson's assiduousness—had recommended him to the Revolutionists, and they appointed him one of the State Senate, where for two years he took a prominent part, and was then sent as a delegate to the Congress of the Confederation at Philadelphia, where he arrived in 1780.

A study of the inherent weakness of Congress, together with the lessons enforced by great personal inconvenience, caused Madison to look further—that is, toward some system of Federation that would cause the States, acting as a whole, to be able to confer on their representatives a respectable authority. He prepared an Address to the States, which was considered unusually able and valuable, asking that Congress be given the power to levy an import duty for the period of twenty-five years. His numerous references in debate and by writing, to the schemes of government and administration that had found favor in other ages and administrations, drew attention to his learning in that direction, and he soon became recognized as an expert in organic law.

As little could be accomplished by one man at Philadelphia, Madison, like Jefferson, determined to at least estab-

lish a working democracy in Virginia, and transferred the scene of his labors to the Legislature of that State.

As a Virginian Madison now set out to give the other colonies examples of submission to the Union. It was here that such proffers must originate, for the Northern States considered that they had more valuable rights to cede, as they were trading communities. The effort to regulate commerce in Virginia, so that it could be taxed without a wasteful number of custom houses, led to a conference between the Chesapeake States. It was soon a matter of discernment for a constitutional scholar like Madison to note that a meeting of the thirteen States might be expected to produce a practical compact. A call was made upon the States to accredit new delegates to a convention which should meet at Philadelphia in May, 1787, "to devise such further provisions as shall appear to them necessary to render the Constitution of the Federal Government adequate to the exigencies of the Union." Virginia was the first to conform to this request, and General Washington and James Madison were among the delegates. Twelve States, all but Rhode Island, sent delegates.

Had the matter waited but a little longer, the two confederacies of 1861 would have been precipitated in 1787 or thereabouts, for the Northern and Southern interests were then as well marked as at any time during the existence of slavery. It was this institution that gave to the Union such a complex machinery of government, and it was Madison's mechanical ability that was able to set that machinery in operation.

Madison's original plan for a Union was somewhat as follows: A House of Congress wherein the population was represented, rather than the States, with necessary modifications, so that the body should not be unwieldy and yet each State should have at least one representative; all general laws to be passed by Congress; a comparatively permanent Senate with power to veto all State laws; the nation to have all

the judiciary and troops; a national executive power (not named in detail); a ratification of the plan by the people at the polls. Madison deplored the mention of force as a compelling cause. The convention sat with closed doors till September 17, 1787, and evolved, on the whole, a more democratic instrument than Madison's. More self-government was left to the States, both in their laws and their judges. The debates, apart from "the peculiar institution," evolved a new fabric, wherein the aristocratic features of the English Government were omitted, and the rights of local government carried down as far as the town meeting, which was an adjustment to the New England form. Madison was at first disappointed—no better pleased than Hamilton. A little later he learned than Patrick Henry and Samuel Adams were almost up in arms against the compact, and that General Washington looked to him to support the Federalist contest in Virginia. He prepared the first ten amendments to the Constitution, making that instrument tolerable to Patrick Henry. He offered twelve, but two failed of adoption by the States.

For ten years after the making of the Constitution the history of Madison is essentially like that of Jefferson—active hostility to everything advocated or done by Hamilton as Secretary of the Treasury.

Madison left the House when General Washington laid down the presidency. He was the acknowledged leader of a rapidly growing party of opposition. About this time he married a widow, Dorothea Payne Todd (the daughter of a Quaker), who was only twenty-six. She became the "Dolly Madison" celebrated in the annals of the White House as one of the most famous of its mistresses. She survived her husband thirteen years, and her bust, after she had arrived at more mature years, is familiar in the engravings of to-day. Mr. Madison built a new house at Montpelier, and Jefferson and Monroe personally aided him in getting things set to rights.

When Jefferson became President he at once called Madison to be Secretary of State, and here the lieutenant passed eight cheerful and easy years, safe under the shadow of a master, with an increasing popularity registering on all political doctrines for which he stood.

In 1809 he became fourth President of the United States by a large majority. Madison, as President, induced Erskine, English Minister, to agree to a fair treaty that was at once repudiated at London. The anti-English party that had followed Jefferson docilely began to push its own course upon Madison, and, as the price of reelection, he was forced to declare war on Great Britain, a course amply justified by all considerations save the one of prudence, which alone withheld Jefferson.

The War of 1812 developed the fact that Madison was a poor war President.

He retired to Montpelier in 1817, and the succession was given to James Monroe, according to the plans of Thomas Jefferson, entered on years before. Josiah Quincy called Madison and Monroe James I and James II.

For nearly twenty years Mr. Madison lived in high honor at Montpelier, a planter who lost interest in neither history nor government. He was justly considered as the only great authority on the Constitution, and succeeding statesmen strove, with his interpretation of its meaning, to keep within the scope of its provisions.

The whole nation mourned in his last days, and he died full of honors June 28, 1836, and was buried at Montpelier. "Mr. Madison," said the faithful slave who attended him, "was, I think, one of the best men who ever lived."

ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

1757-1804.

FOUNDER OF THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT.

Alexander Hamilton was born obscurely on the very small English

island of Nevis, near St. Christopher's, in the West Indies, January 11, 1757.

Hamilton, a lad of fifteen, remarkable for his precocity, arrived at Boston in October, 1772, and went thence to New York, where he was put in a suburban grammar school, friends having interested themselves in his education. He then entered King's College. His dark skin proclaimed a tropical birth, and he was called "the young West Indian." In 1774 he visited Boston, where he gathered his first ideas of "sedition"—for New York was a Tory town. The opponents of the English policy in New York were of the poorer classes, and Hamilton first attended their meeting in the fields July 6, 1774, where he made bold to ascend their rostrum and inform the multitude as to what was taking place at Faneuil Hall and in the Old South Church of Boston. In the autumn of that year the lad published several patriotic pamphlets and became a voluminous contributor to the press, with the idea of forcing New York into the Continental Congress. When the war began at Boston, the student, like Monroe at the Williamsburg College, joined a military company of patriots, and was the hero of a number of exploits that reflected credit on his courage, dignity and humanity. In 1776 the New York Convention gave him permission to raise a military company of his own, and the captain drilled his men so well that he rose to the favorable notice of General Greene, who, in turn, introduced him to General Washington. So bravely did Captain Hamilton deport himself during the continuous retreats of the patriot army, and so marked was his facility as a writer, that General Washington appointed him one of his aides, with the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel March 1, 1777, when he was barely twenty years old. He now took charge of Washington's correspondence, and for years filled the arduous, and, as he believed, not sufficiently glorious post of military secretary. After the great success of General Gates at Saratoga Colonel Hamilton was sent north to persuade or command

General Gates to detach some of his troops for the succor of the main army, and succeeded. He was on other occasions a trusted messenger and envoy of Washington. When Major Andre fell into the toils that sometimes close around a spy, Colonel Hamilton exerted himself to save the unfortunate man.

On February 16, 1781, General Washington sent for Colonel Hamilton to come to him, and, believing that his aide had not hastened, rebuked him for a lack of respect to his commander. "I am not conscious of it, sir; but since you have thought it, we part." General Washington strove to quiet the young man's resentment, and ever looked upon him with most favoring eye. It is said that all the army officers who were friendly to Washington, particularly the French, were unequivocally fond of Hamilton. Doubtless the young Colonel desired a command rather than a clerkship, and his withdrawal secured it, for in the seventh year of the war he was in the army again as a General, and at Yorktown was given charge of the assault on one of the redoubts. He went forward impetuously at the head of his men, and had possession in less than ten minutes of gallant fighting. The French were not so expeditious, and the honors of the day went to Hamilton, thus contributing greatly to his standing in Revolutionary councils.

After his retirement from the army he was the author of several striking treatises looking to a correction of the evils from which he had seen the patriot army suffer so cruelly. "We must have a government of more power," he wrote. "We must have a tax in kind. We must have a foreign loan. We must have a bank on the true principles of a bank. We must have an administration distinct from Congress, and in the hands of single men under their orders."

While he was General Washington's aide, Hamilton married General Schuyler's daughter Elizabeth, and at the close of the war had for his fortune wife, child, arrears-of-pay, and ambition. He

made a preparation for the bar almost as hasty as that of Patrick Henry, and was admitted to practice at New York in the summer of 1782. At the same time his friend Robert Morris appointed him Federal Tax Collector at New York. Hamilton next attended the Legislature at Poughkeepsie, argued, lobbied, pleaded and did all he could to sweep away the nerveless forms of public business, but with little success at the time. The Legislature, however, appointed him a member of Congress, and he resigned his Collectorship. In the Congress of 1782 he met Madison, his great parliamentary antagonist. Through that year and into 1783 he labored, as he had always done, to bring the country to a sense of its indebtedness to the army, but the Rhode Islanders and others could not see their way clear to allow a general or continental procedure and were inclined to choose repudiation. General Washington calmed the army, and doubtless moderated the sentiments of his young admirer. McHenry wrote to Hamilton that if he (Hamilton) were ten years older and twenty thousand pounds richer Congress would have believed all his advice good. The young Congressman retired defeated at every point, and attributed his lack of success to the existence of thirteen democracies that could not long survive under the strain of their local jealousies, injustices and ingritudes, as expressed toward the gallant army that had shed its blood so copiously for them. In the practice of his profession at New York he took the case of a Tory who had been sued for damages inflicted under the British occupation of New York. The patriots were all on the side of the plaintiff, whom Hamilton defeated. The Legislature and the people were very angry, and Hamilton, in taking the English side of the construction of the treaty of peace, further alienated himself from the favor of the masses, for whose opinion he evidenced growing indifference. He next provoked criticism by aiding the formation of the Society of the Cincinnati, whose members were to perpetuate their asso-

ciation by inheritance in the first-born male descendants. Yet while separating himself further and further from the affections of the masses, Hamilton was not the less busy with thoughts of getting the nation together into coherent form. He first tried a State bank. When Madison left Congress to see what he could do in one State alone, he found Maryland surprisingly ready to debate the same questions of commercial taxation that were pressing. The first meeting led to a larger one. Then the Annapolis Convention was formally called, and to this Alexander Hamilton came, full of hope and fertile with plans to set up a stable central authority. It was he who wrote the Address of that rump convention—for only five States sat—and that Address proved to be the formal call for the Constitutional Convention of the United States of America—the only one ever held by this nation. Therefore it cannot be amiss, by way of emphasis, to repeat that Alexander Hamilton wrote the call for the Constitutional Convention, and that it was the outcome of all his hopes for many years.

Hamilton then entered the Legislature of New York, where he was again defeated at every point in his attempt to subserve the government, or any part of the government, of New York to the nation. When it came to the appointment of delegates to the Constitutional Convention, only three were chosen, and although Hamilton was included in the small delegation, his voice was lost through the association with him of Yates and Lansing, who were sure to vote against him. The course of the New York Legislature, however, had given the last blow to the old Confederation of Samuel Adams, and there was no central bureau toward whom a majority of the States looked with respect or from whose officers they received directions without ridicule.

Twelve States met at Philadelphia, with General Washington sitting in the chair and giving continental dignity to the deliberations. Hamilton made a speech of six hours, early in the Con-

vention, and then, as he was certain to be outvoted as one of the three delegates from his State, he absented himself much of the time from the sessions. He took the British institutions of King, Lords and Commons, as "the best models in existence." He boldly outlined his plan, so that there could be no mistake as to his meaning. He desired to effectually cripple the power of the States and "establish an aristocratic Republic as distinguished from a democratic Republic." A certain amount of property should entitle an elector to vote for President and Senators, who were "to hold office during good behavior." The President was to appoint the Governors, and they were to wield a veto-power over all legislation. This was a duplication of the English monarchy, with the omission of a few details that must follow. The Senatorial rank would supply the nobility and the electoral franchise would carry with it the advantages of an aristocracy. Hamilton's plan served as the tentative proposition of the ultra-conservatives; had they started nearer to the base-line of democracy, they would have been compelled to concede more than they did. As it was, their President, with his vast appointive power, re-eligible for life, seemed a veritable monarch to Samuel Adams, Patrick Henry, and James Monroe. Hamilton's Constitutional labors lay in writing the call; in laying down the extreme proposals of the "monocrats," as they were then called, and in his return to New York and valiant service as an advocate of the Constitution that had passed the Convention, New York State being averse to its acceptance, or, in fact, to entrance into any Union. "Publius" was Hamilton's pen-name, and his articles in the *Federalist* were hailed with enthusiasm by all who were under the influence of General Washington. Despite the opposition of Governor Clinton, a Constitutional Convention for New York (to debate the proposed federal instrument) was called, but Clinton was its President, with 46 out of 65 votes. "Two-thirds of the convention and four-sevenths o

the people are against us," wrote Hamilton. Yet so masterly was his leadership of the minority of nineteen with which he entered the body that he came out of it with a majority of three, and the State signed the Constitution. The Commonwealth could not then foresee the leading position it was to have in the Great Republic. This was the last parliamentary contest of magnitude which Hamilton personally led. It was a victory which has filled his eulogists with justifiable pride. He was elected to Congress, and carried to Philadelphia tidings which gave his patron, General Washington, no ordinary satisfaction. But he was soon defeated at many other points. He could not prevent the ten amendments demanded by Patrick Henry, and he could not withstand the power of Clinton in New York, who took him out of Congress. In urging the interests of the Schuyler family, he would make no terms with the Livingstons, demanding too much, and thus he finally lost influence in the United States Senate, for, though he was able to at first control both the Senators and secure Federalists (that is, supporters of the Constitution), he alienated the Livingstons and raised up Burr against him. This Burr, in the end, was to avenge his own defeat by the murder of his political vanquisher.

When Congress next met, there was a President of the United States. But it was early in the autumn before there was a law for a Treasury Department. Hamilton, at thirty-two, was chosen for this office.

When the election of Jefferson and Burr was thrown into the House, under the crude electoral system then in operation, it was Hamilton who absented Federalists enough to elect Jefferson, thus defeating the hopes of Burr, and in Burr's opinion betraying the interests of New York.

Hamilton lived at Washington Heights, now the corner of One Hundred and Forty-fifth street and Tenth avenue, New York City. The house, still standing, is a large frame structure with tall wooden columns. At the

southeast corner are thirteen tall trees, planted by Hamilton to represent the thirteen States.

On the 4th of July, 1801, Philip Hamilton, a lad of eighteen years old, eldest son of the General, heard G. J. Eaker deliver an oration in which he spoke disparagingly of General Hamilton. A short time afterward a personal affray resulted and a young friend of young Hamilton fought a bloodless duel with Eaker. On this young Hamilton challenged Eaker, and the principals met January 10, 1802, at Weehawken, N. J., where Eaker killed young Hamilton. General Hamilton, hurrying to prevent this tragedy, fainted on the way. That the father should fall fatally wounded on this very spot under the Weehawken ledge has evoked for the widow and mother the tenderest sympathies of mankind.

Both Hamilton and Burr were deeply disappointed men who did not quietly submit to misfortune. When Jefferson was at the crest of success, General Hamilton wrote, February 27, 1802, to Gouverneur Morris: "Mine is an odd destiny. Perhaps no man in the United States has sacrificed or done more for the present Constitution than myself; and contrary to all my anticipations of its fate, as you know, from the beginning. I am still laboring to prop the frail and worthless fabric. Yet I have the murmurs of its friends no less than the curses of its foes for my reward. What can I do better than withdraw from the scene? Every day proves to me more and more that this American world was not made for me."

Aaron Burr, on his side, had many causes to hate General Hamilton. Beside the Presidential election, Hamilton had prevented Burr's appointment to a foreign mission. Then Burr stood for election as Governor of New York, but through Hamilton's interference Lewis, a Democratic rival of Burr, was elected. For fourteen years Hamilton had assailed Burr with all the bitterness of his nature. Both were now out of office—one was ex-Vice-President, the other ex-Secretary of the Treasury. Both were extremely ambitious, but

Hamilton could not be President under the Constitution, being foreign-born.

It would seem that Hamilton, by a reiteration of these sentiments, had come to think that they were safe. And it seems that but for the intermeddling of one Dr. Charles D. Cooper, Burr might not have thought his honor as a fighting man had been put in jeopardy. At last Hamilton, in the presence of this Dr. Cooper, declared that "he looked on Mr. Burr as a dangerous man, and one who ought not to be trusted with the reins of government."

This statement of Dr. Cooper, coupled with other matters of a striking intermeddling and tell-tale character, was published in a newspaper, whereupon, June 18, 1804, Colonel Burr sent to General Hamilton by hand of W. P. Van Ness, a note as follows:

"You must perceive, sir, the necessity of a prompt and unqualified acknowledgment or denial of the use of any expression which would warrant the assertion of Dr. Cooper."

General Hamilton replied in a verbose note two days later. He did not consider the charge as being sufficiently definite.

On the 21st Colonel Burr again addressed General Hamilton. General Hamilton's rejoinder was once more evasive, but this time brief. It was evident that he desired to avoid either a battle or an apology. The correspondence was then assumed by seconds—Van Ness for Burr, and Pendleton for Hamilton—each writing a somewhat wordy epistle. With that of Van Ness was inclosed the formal challenge.

At daylight of July 11, 1804, Colonel Burr and Van Ness arrived first at the duelling-ground, by appointment; then came General Hamilton, Pendleton and Dr. Hosack, surgeon. The parties exchanged salutations. By lot, position and word both fell to Hamilton's second. The large pistols were loaded and the distance of ten paces measured. The second giving the word asked: "Are you ready?" The answer was "Yes." He cried, "Present!" and, by

agreement, the two pistols were fired. General Hamilton almost instantly fell. Burr advanced, evidently to express his regret, but his second, fearing a recognition by the surgeon and approaching boatmen, hurried him off to the boat. The surgeon and Pendleton raised General Hamilton to a sitting posture, and he said: "This is a mortal wound," swooning away. As he was carried to the river-bank he said: "My vision is indistinct." He was found to be mortally wounded in the side. The house was not far away, but the wounded man suffered intensely on the journey, and confronted the distress of a wife and seven children on arrival. He was undressed and put in a dark room. The surgeons of the French frigates and the eminent medical men of the city all hastened to the stricken home, but it was deemed unwise to increase the sufferings of a dying man. At about 2 o'clock, as the public well know, he expired.

JAMES MONROE.

1758-1831

AUTHOR OF THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

James Monroe was born in Westmoreland County, near the head of Monroe's Creek, which empties into the Potomac River, April 28, 1758. Not far away was the birthplace of George Washington. During Monroe's boyhood the county was stirred with discussions of the Stamp Act, and his neighbors nearly all followed the lead of Patrick Henry. Monroe entered the college of William and Mary at Williamsburg, and was at school there when the Revolutionary War broke out. He, with thirty other students, among whom was John Marshall, at once enlisted, and Monroe entered the service of Washington near New York as a Lieutenant in the Third Virginia Regiment of Colonel Mercer. He was in the engagements of Harlem and White Plains. At Trenton he was wounded in the shoulder, and carried the bullet in his body till he died.

Colonel Monroe was chosen a mem-

ber of the Assembly two years after he began studying law with Jefferson, and in the same year entered the State Senate. At the age of twenty-five he was sent as a delegate to Congress, where he sat for three years, following that peripatetic body to Annapolis, Trenton and New York. During the summer of 1784 he ascended the Hudson River to Albany, went westward to the lakes, and down the Ohio River; thence homeward over the mountains. In the same year he visited Fort Pitt on another journey. He had a statesman's desire to inspect the land he lived in, and in early life, after he had seen a portion of it, he became an earnest advocate of free soil for the parts yet to be settled. This sentiment he modified in later years.

While he was attending Congress at New York, in 1786, he married Miss Eliza Kortwright, a young woman of admitted beauty, and the pair moved to Fredericksburg, Va., where the husband began the practice of law. There were two children, both daughters, by this marriage. The next year (1787) he was chosen to the Assembly, and was in the celebrated convention of the next year, when Patrick Henry came so near compelling Virginia to reject the new Federal Constitution. Monroe followed the lead of Henry, and opposed Madison, with whom he was afterward to labor during so many years in perfect harmony. When Patrick Henry punished Madison by excluding him as United States Senator, Monroe was given the coveted place.

Here began the national career of Monroe under the new Constitution. He sat quietly in the United States Senate for over three years. He received from General Washington an appointment to France as Minister. It was well known that Monroe was an ardent democratic-Republican, and an admirer of the French Revolutionists. The recall of Monroe took place in August, 1796, but he did not reach America till the spring of 1797.

Monroe became Governor of Virginia, and was twice re-elected to that office, going to the constitutional limit.

This period carried him past the death of Washington and the election of Jefferson as President.

As soon as Jefferson became President it gave him pleasure to vindicate Governor Monroe by an appointment once more to France, with letters also to Spain and England. This time Monroe's mission, though no more creditable to the heart, was crowned with a success that in the end has added thirteen commonwealths to our nation. In a word, Louisiana was purchased. The main negotiators were, for America, Jefferson, Monroe, Livingston; for France, Bonaparte, Talleyrand, Marbois. Following the successful issue of this mission, Monroe waited officially upon the English Foreign Minister at London. There the rancor and ill-will of the Government were still apparent. Not a civil remark escaped the receiving official. Monroe was glad to go to Madrid, to see if he could purchase Florida. There he stayed without considerable progress till May, 1805. He afterward resided mainly at London, and looked after the local interests of some of the States. In May, 1806, he was empowered, with Pinckney, to make a treaty with England, and, although he had been filled with prejudice toward England, Lord Holland succeeded in getting a treaty from the Americans which overlooked the outrageous search of the English ships, and Jefferson, as President, would not consider it. Thus Monroe's good fortune at Paris was again dampened under English fogs, and when he returned home Virginia chose Madison rather than Monroe for Presidential candidate, but softened Monroe's rebuke by electing him Governor for the fourth time, he having meanwhile occupied a seat in the Assembly. This great office he laid down to accept the portfolio of State under Madison, who had been President for about two years. The War of 1812 came on. He was Secretary of State for six years, and at one time filled also the position of Secretary of War. He could not remain quiet under the surrender of Hull and the misfortunes of Van Rensselaer

and Smyth, and though the union of the executive and military arms in one person was a matter to be deplored by so pronounced a Democrat, he still desired to secure a more active hold on public operations than President Madison had achieved. His views were forwarded by a continuation of disastrous events, and when the city of Washington was raided, he secured the dismissal of Armstrong as Secretary of War, took up the burden himself, and infused no little energy into the military affairs of the Republic. He wrote cheering letters to General Jackson, in the southwest, and mandatory dispatches to the Governors: "Hasten your militia to New Orleans. Do not wait for this Government to arm them. Put all the arms you can find into their hands. Let every man bring his rifle with him. We shall see you paid." At one time Monroe was in his clothes for ten days, with almost no repose. The war closed with the downfall of Napoleon, in Europe, American hostilities having been a harmonic vibration at best—an auxiliary action, a play within the play—and America shared, in a release from urgent troubles, the good fortune of the world.

President Madison having reached the limit of official tenure as exemplified by the withdrawals of Washington and Jefferson, James Monroe, his chief Secretary, became the fitting candidate for President, and with Daniel D. Tompkins as Vice-President, received 183 electoral votes, to only thirty-four for Rufus King, the Federalist. During the eight years of Monroe's Presidency—renowned, at last, in political history as "the era of good feeling"—Florida was purchased, Missouri admitted, Mexico recognized, Lafayette welcomed, and the Monroe doctrine expounded. He became President at fifty-nine. He had for impartial advisers two ex-President, whose only desire was to see him succeed. He took into his Cabinet, as Secretary of State, John Quincy Adams, at that time a man of extraordinary distinction. Calhoun was appointed Secretary of War, Crawford Secretary of the Treas-

ury, Wirt Attorney-General and Meigs Postmaster-General. Andrew Jackson was a popular hero. Webster, Clay and Benton were well upon the scene of public events. Henry Clay resented the appointment of Mr. Adams, but General Jackson was directly in the Jeffersonian line of faith, and a firm upholder of Monroe. The first thing the new President did was to make a tour of both sections of the nation. The northern tour extended to Portland, Me., west to Detroit, east to Washington by way of Zanesville and Pittsburgh. In the southern tour, two years later, the President visited Augusta, the Cherokees, Nashville, Louisville and Lexington.

With Monroe's second term came to an end the twenty-four years' period of Jefferson's direct personal influence.

James Monroe retired from public life March 4, 1825, after forty-three years of public service, and made his residence at Oak Hill, Loudoun County, Va., dividing his time, however, by long visits to New York, where his daughter, Mrs. Gouverneur, lived. He died at New York on July 4, 1831, being the third of the Presidents to leave this world on the natal day they had done so much to make historical.

ANDREW JACKSON

1767-1845

OLD HICKORY

Andrew Jackson was born March 15, 1767, at the Waxhaw Settlement, as he believed, in South Carolina, but, as many writers discover, in Mecklenburg county, North Carolina, on the upper waters of the Catawba River. The English penetrated the region, hoping to secure recruits. An officer wounded the boy Andrew because he refused to brush the officer's boots. He and his two brothers were taken prisoners to Camden, and the widowed mother died on her way to Camden. The two brothers lost their lives, and hatred of England was implanted in the heart of Andrew Jackson. At fourteen he was

without relatives or means. He became a saddler's apprentice, and later a law student. After four years of study, in which it is said that he learned little, a friend appointed him public prosecutor in what is now Tennessee, but was then the Western District of North Carolina, and he arrived in Nashville at the age of twenty-one. The inhabitants had attempted to set up the State of Franklin, and were in a condition of disorder. It is probable that only a man who valued life lightly would have accepted Jackson's task. He seems to have joined to his ordinary dangers the collection of bad debts. Therefore his life was continually at stake on every lonesome road, and in every new circle of acquaintances. That he should soon be a leading spirit in such a state of society may be considered an index of his character—he was sure, in the end, if he survived, to be a hero.

At Nashville, Jackson boarded with a widow Donelson, whose daughter Rachel and her husband, Lewis Robards, also lived with her. Robards had been married in Kentucky under Virginia law. In 1791, three years after Jackson's arrival, Robards petitioned for divorce, alleging that his wife had deserted him and was living with Jackson. The Legislature of Virginia passed a bill authorizing the Supreme Court of Kentucky to try the case with a jury, and grant a divorce if the facts were found to be as stated. Robards took no action for two years, but meantime Jackson married Mrs. Robards. Robards secured his divorce two years later, when Jackson and his wife were married again. It reflects ill on Jackson as a lawyer that he was put in this position. He remained through life extremely sensitive to criticism on this matter; he clung to his wife for thirty years, and mourned for her ever afterward in a noble and unaffected, almost romantic manner. We shall see that his fidelity to her was the most striking point in his career.

In 1796 Jackson was a member of the Constitutional Convention of Tennessee, and, it is said, suggested the naming of the State after the river. He

was the first Congressman of the State, and, later, was made a United States Senator. At Philadelphia he appeared to Gallatin as "a tall, lank, uncouth-looking personage, with long locks of hair hanging over his face, and a cue down his back tied in an eel-skin; his dress singular, his manners and deportment those of a rough backwoodsman." "When I was President of the Senate," says Jefferson, "he was a Senator, and he could never speak on account of the rashness of his feelings. I have seen him attempt it repeatedly, and as often choke with rage."

As a Senator, Jackson was a Jacobin, and felt deeply embittered against General Washington for his friendliness to England. In 1798 the Senator resigned to become a Supreme Judge in Tennessee. In 1801 ex-Governor Sevier and Judge Jackson were candidates for the major-generalship of the militia; Jackson won by the vote of Governor Roane. In 1803 Sevier became Governor, and when he casually met Jackson, both men drew their pistols, but no blood was shed. Jackson, while Judge, was proprietor of a store, and resigned his position on the bench in 1804, but retained his office of Major-General.

General Jackson was sure to meet somebody in the wilderness who could not share it with him. He was ready to fight all comers, and it seems that the best shot of the settlements, one Charles Dickinson, set out to drive him out of Tennessee or kill him. Dickinson, therefore, aspersed the character of General Jackson's wife in order to stir up the bad blood there was in General Jackson, and then the duel was arranged as falling out of a quarrel over a bet at a horse-race. Jackson challenged Dickinson. The meeting took place near Adairsville, Tenn., May 30, 1806. Dickinson, on his way to the rendezvous, amused his associates by displaying his wonderful skill with a pistol. Once, at a distance of twenty-four feet, he fired four bullets, each at the word of command, into a space which could be covered by a silver dollar. He repeatedly severed a string

with a bullet, and at a tavern, where he had performed this feat of marksmanship, he said to the landlord as he rode off: "If General Jackson comes along this road, be kind enough to show him that!" At the meeting it was agreed that both parties should stand facing each other with pistol held downward. At the word, each man was to fire as soon as he should please to do so. On the word, Dickinson was quickest to fire. A puff of dust flew from Jackson's coat, and his second saw him raise his left arm and place it tightly across his chest. Meanwhile he began taking aim. "Great God!" cried Dickinson, "have I missed him?" Jackson's trigger snapped, but did not explode the load; Jackson drew the trigger back to its full-cock, again took careful aim, and fired. The bullet passed entirely through Dickinson's body. He lived until 9 o'clock that night. It was found that one of Jackson's shoes was full of blood. Dickinson's bullet had broken two of Jackson's ribs, and the wound weakened the General for life. "I would have lived long enough to kill him," said Jackson, "if he had shot me through the heart." With this bloody adjudication, however, popular opinion at once determined that Dickinson deserved death for gratuitously slandering a woman so upright as Mrs. Jackson had proved herself to be after her marriage to Andrew Jackson.

General Jackson thought he ought to be appointed Governor of Orleans, and became embittered against President Jefferson because of non-appointment. He readily made friends with Burr when that adventurer started on his scheme of a new Empire, Burr striving to make a tool of the backwoodsman. During this period it is not impossible that Jackson was a negro-trader, who defied the Indian agent, Dinsmore. Jackson wrote to the Secretary of War that unless he removed Dinsmore the people of West Tennessee would burn him in his own agency. Dinsmore, who had done right, was removed, and Jackson was ever afterward his rancorous enemy,

although Dinsmore fell into poverty and sued for reconciliation.

Meantime, the French cast to politics in Tennessee carried the people along with Napoleon, and he was looked upon with awe by the bullies of the woods. As his arms prevailed, it became a fixed opinion that America must take sides with him against the world. When this policy was forced on President Madison, Major-General Jackson, now forty-five years old, came into a conspicuous position before the Nation. He offered himself with 2,500 volunteers and was ordered to New Orleans. At Natchez he was commanded to disband. He led home his little army, casting severe reflections on the Administration. Thomas H. Benton was an officer in the militia, and had a brother Jesse. Jackson had stood second for another man in a duel with Jesse, and there was bad blood with the Bentons. They met Jackson September 13, 1813. Blows and shots were exchanged, and Jackson was laid up with a ball in his shoulder. He carried this missile in his body for twenty years. While he was in bed from his wound the Creek Indian war broke out, and Jackson took the field as soon as he could. He quarreled with Cocke, the other Tennessee Major-General, but showed remarkable governing ability, and was a successful military man. The young men enlisted under him with enthusiasm. March 14, 1814, by his command, John Wood was shot for an assault on an officer. General Jackson defeated the Creeks at Tohopeka, and chased them out of the Hickory Ground, building Fort Jackson and winning his soubriquet of "Old Hickory." Major-General Pinckney, of the regular army, took command April 20, 1814, after covering General Jackson with the thanks of the Nation. May 31 General Jackson was appointed Major-General in the regular army, and given command of the Department of the South, with headquarters at Mobile. The English used Spanish territory in Florida as a base, and when Washington was captured, General Jackson, in

the face of orders, attacked his enemies wherever he found them. He, with 5,000 men, stormed Pensacola, Florida (in Spanish territory), and when the English retreated, he also withdrew to Mobile. He was now in a military position to defend New Orleans, and reached there December 2, 1814. Between that time and the 7th of January, 1815, he was enthusiastically busy making defences. The story of his use of cotton bales is familiar, but the cotton was easily set on fire, and had to be entirely removed. General Pakenham brought 12,000 British troops in a fleet, meeting entrenchments about five feet high, some miles below the city. The English advanced in the face of a heavy artillery fire, but when they came within range of the rifles of the backwoodsmen, they were slaughtered so rapidly that they wavered. Pakenham fell. Lambert, who succeeded, withdrew his men in the night. The English loss had been over 2,000, the American loss was but seven killed and six wounded. The Battle of New Orleans was fought after the Treaty of Ghent had been signed. The engagement was needless, yet it was of priceless value to the Democratic party, who could show a victory at last, and it put the seal of everlasting ignominy on the Federalist convention at Hartford, where it was well said the New Englanders would have been in better business at war with their enemies. Yet at the moment when General Jackson might have deemed it wise to court popularity, he shot six more men at Mobile for mutiny. He thus had executed as many men as he had lost in the battle. He soon after defied a civil court and was fined \$1,000 for imprisoning a Judge. It certainly did not seem that he possessed the arts of a demagogue. Yet the able politicians of Congress, noting the decadence of the Virginia power, the neutrality of Monroe, the unpopularity of John Quincy Adams, Secretary of State, and heir apparent, all had an eye on General Jackson, whose hold on the people bade fair to exceed that of General Washington.

The wars had left as legacies bodies of pirates, filibusters, Indians and negroes, mostly on Spanish soil, and when the Seminole War broke out Jackson had good reason to believe he had tacit permission to capture Florida. Briefly stated, he pillaged, captured, and devastated on Spanish soil. He hanged two Indian captives whose persons he had gained by a base stratagem. He hanged two Englishmen, on the ground that they were stirring up war—making eleven, and with Dickinson, twelve people he had sent to violent death. He sent up to the administration a very disagreeable entanglement with Spain and England, which John Quincy Adams, Secretary of State, took on himself to unravel. Calhoun secretly assailed Jackson. Henry Clay openly attacked the Administration as soon as it adopted Jackson, and there began the Clay-Jackson feud. But as for enemies of the United States in Jackson's purview, there were none. Success had followed him at every turn, and he had hanged or shot all who had opposed him if they fell into his hands. In J. Q. Adam's diary it is written that Monroe asked Jefferson, in 1818, if it would not be a good idea to ship off General Jackson as Minister to Russia: "Why, good G—!" cried Jefferson, "he would breed you a quarrel before he had been there a month."

William B. Lewis, a neighbor (Sumner calls him "the Great Father of the wire-pullers"), now grasped the opportunities offered by Jackson's popularity, and, as a move toward the Presidency, secured the General's nomination by the Tennessee Legislature, and his election to the United States Senate. General Jackson, thus a nominated Presidential candidate, was himself compelled to take the lesser place, because no Jackson man could beat the other candidate. He was all this time outside "the machine," and his opponents rarely used any other epithet than "murderer." But General Jackson had nothing sordid about him; he was simple, chaste, and domestic in his habits; he was not a demagogue; he did not

drink liquor; he remained unrewarded by the people, although they seemed anxious to acknowledge the value of his services. Therefore, John Quincy Adams came so near losing his one term as President that General Jackson in the Electoral College had ninety-nine votes to only eighty-four for Adams. Clay kept up his feud when the election came to the House, and Adams was chosen.

President Adams went out of office because the people believed nearly all of the false accusations made against him.

On the 22d of December, 1828, the wife of Andrew Jackson died at the Hermitage. The day of the funeral General Jackson, President-Elect, feeble and heartbroken, walked slowly behind the coffin of Rachel, leaning upon a long cane that he was accustomed to carry on the farm. As he stood looking on her face for the last time, he lifted his cane and commanded the attention of all: "In the presence of this dear saint, I can and do forgive all my enemies. But those vile wretches who have slandered her must look to God for mercy." She was buried in the little garden near the residence.

At Washington, the next March, when General Jackson was inaugurated, there was a Jeffersonian jubilee.

All the previous Presidents together had removed seventy-four officers. Andrew Jackson began with a proscription of about 700. He made about 2,000 removals in all. He was the first of the Presidents to give compliant country editors post-offices. The cries of the functionaries who had been forty years in place were pitiful, and it is said some slight harm came to the public service.

The first National Convention met and nominated Jackson and Van Buren (dropping Calhoun); the National Republicans nominated Clay and Sergeant; there was an anti-Mason ticket (Wirt) which carried Vermont. South Carolina stood out, and cast her eleven votes for Floyd. Jackson and Van Buren were elected by popular and Electoral-College majorities.

In 1832 the nullifiers came in full control of the South Carolina Government, and proceeded to construct a metaphysical scheme of Constitutional secession. Yet all was not smooth for the nullifiers in their own State. A Union convention met at Columbia, and Union men were strong at Charleston. Civil war was possible within the commonwealth.

Now there sat in the President's chair a man, in General Jackson, who looked on all this as a mere invention of Calhoun—Calhoun, who had thought to ruin Andrew Jackson after the Seminole executions—Calhoun, who had testified friendship and taken office on the same ticket with Andrew Jackson. Andrew Jackson therefore beheld nullification as a purely personal affair—some more people to be hanged or shot, and it was not long before he began to study what grounds he might have for executing both Calhoun and Clay, if necessary.

January 30, 1835, an insane man named Lawrence snapped a pistol twice at General Jackson. The President openly accused Poindexter, of Mississippi, as the instigator, probably without just reason.

He had his party well drilled and disciplined on the modern plan. The elections fulfilled the President's hopes, and on March 2, 1837, the proud old chieftain wrote to Trist: "On the 4th I hope to be able to go to the Capitol to witness the glorious scene of Mr. Van Buren, once rejected by the Senate, sworn into office by Chief Justice Taney, also being rejected by the factious Senate."

March 7, 1837, Andrew Jackson set out from Washington for the Hermitage. He left his party in full control of the nation by popular and electoral vote, on a platform of low taxes, no debt, no glory, no public works, no display at the expense of taxpayers. If slavery had been out of the way, it is difficult to see that this program could ever have been outvoted. On his way home he met the same demonstrations of tender, popular affection that attended Washington's journey to Mt.

Vernon. He, like Washington, was regarded as a strong man, who had been converted to the New World doctrine of freedom for all. There could be no doubt of the permanency of our institutions if the soil would produce such as he. He continued to be a never-failing oracle, and politicians did not hesitate to make long journeys in order to be seen by the people going under the sacred lintels of the Hermitage near Nashville. In 1843 he wrote a letter favoring the annexation of Texas.

He spent eight years in retirement, and saw Calhoun, Clay and Biddle all defeated or ruined. The things he did were all approved by the people, and he was a political saint long before he died. There were many sides of his character that shone gloriously in the light of liberty, and the tenderness of his love for Rachel charmed many who would have been alienated by his taste for revenge. He was as true as he was terrible. He was as forceful as he was simple. He had the mettle of a dictator, and the fidelity of a democratical philosopher. His soul was as strong as his body was frail.

The Hermitage was approached through a long double row of cedars. It is a quaint old building, main rooms and shed rooms of brick, with wooden columns and copings in front. Here the old hero lived with Colonel Andrew Jackson, adopted grandson, his wife and mother, and two old negroes, man and wife. General Jackson every day visited the grave of her he had loved, whose enemies he would have killed to a man, whose name was revered to him, whose gentle graces he regarded as those of the angels. He joined the Church, at last, and, under the urgent arguments of his spiritual savours, forgave his enemies en masse. He was not sour; he had not expected to escape the hatreds of evil persons, and easily believed all were evil who did not believe in the Union, with low taxes and hard money. If Rachel had been with him, his cup would have over-run with joy. He died on the 8th of June, 1845, and was buried beside Rachel in the little garden.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS

1767-1848

"THE OLD MAN ELOQUENT."

July 11, 1767, in the north parish of Braintree, Massachusetts Bay, two years after the passage of the Stamp Act, there was born to John and Abigail Adams, both Revolutionary characters of the first order, a son, John Quincy Adams. When this son was seven years old he, with his leonine mother, climbed to the top of a high hill, listened to the cannon of Bunker Hill battle, and watched the flames that arose from the conflagration of Charleston. At nine he was post-rider. At eleven he made a voyage with his father to Europe and back, and immediately set out for the Old World again with his parent. He went to school at Paris, Amsterdam, Leyden—wherever his father happened to be. Then the Envoy to Russia, Judge Dana, took him to St. Petersburg as private secretary. When John Adams became Minister to England, he doubtless considered himself able to send the boy to college, and the son was offered the opportunity, which he seized, returning to America and entering Harvard. He graduated in 1787, and studied law at Newburyport, with Judge Parsons. When he was twenty-three, he was admitted to practice, and established his office at Boston. He scored Citizen Genet, the French torch-bearer of Liberty, so effectively that President Washington was led to appoint the young man Minister to the Hague. It is about this time that he begins the celebrated diary, which ranks him as one of the great private annalists of the world. The diary continues from 1795 to 1848, and with that of his father, forms one of the richest historical treasuries that exist as the original work of only two men. He was at the Hague while the army of France was victorious in the Netherlands. Diplomatic business called him to London, and there, in 1797, he married Miss Louisa C. Johnson, with whom he lived happily till he

died. John Quincy Adams was appointed Minister to Prussia, and it is said the lieutenant at the gate did not know there was any such country as the new Minister claimed to represent. He traveled through Silesia, viewed the battle-fields, made a treaty, and was recalled by his father when it was known that Jefferson was to come in as President.

John Quincy Adams returned to the practice of law at Boston, and a district judge made him a commissioner in bankruptcy. From this position President Jefferson removed him. April 5, 1802, the ousted Federalist was elected to the State Senate. In 1803 he was elected United States Senator. But his entry into official life at the Capital was most inauspicious. To him the capital city seemed, after Berlin, Paris and London, as some capital city in an East Indian or South African region now appears to us. Not only did the rudeness of the surroundings depress him, but he was personally the victim of the incivility of both Democrats and Federalists. A motion which he would make would be lost; another Senator would repeat it, and it would be carried almost by acclamation. The environment rapidly put him upon his mettle. The mistreatment which he received from the expiring Federalist party opened his eyes to the good that was in their opponents, and toward the end of his third Congress, he was able to be of service to Jefferson in many ways, getting well on the side favored by the majority. His Legislature avenged itself by forcing his resignation, and he was able to change parties at a favorable moment. He simply felt, with seven-tenths of the voters, that if we must have war with a foreign nation it ought not to be with France.

When James Madison came to the Presidency, he found Mr. Adams thus out of office on principle, and was glad to nominate him as Minister to Russia. The Senate at first refused to consent, but on a later date confirmed the nomination. The statesman, once so unpopular, had been able to change his party, and yet greatly increase his

standing among his colleagues—a feat not often recorded. The journey from Boston to St. Petersburg was accomplished between August 5 and October 23. The residence at St. Petersburg is important as giving a Russian aspect to the Diary of Mr. Adams, while Napoleon was carrying on the greatest wars the world has seen.

On August 7, 1814, Mr. Adams was at Ghent, as one of the commissioners of the peace that ended our War of 1812 with England. The deliberations lasted four months. That John Quincy Adams should ever have figured as a peacemaker, in a peace that was made, seems incredible; yet it is probable that Henry Clay, at Ghent, opposed more numerous obstacles. All of the gentlemen were of irritable temper. The treaty at London was considered a great Yankee victory.

Mr. Adams was at Paris when Napoleon returned from Elba, but became Minister at London before Waterloo. When he was a young man General Washington had foretold that John Quincy Adams would some day reach the head of the diplomatic service, and he was now in that proud official position.

When James Monroe entered on the Presidency, Mr. Adams was invited to become Secretary of State.

Mr. Adams would make no effort whatever to secure the office of President, yet stated that if the people did not elect him he should consider it a vote of waning confidence. The Electoral College was not able to announce a choice, and the election went to the House, where the balloting was confined to the names of Jackson, Adams and Crawford. Henry Clay, with only thirty-seven votes, could not come before the House as a candidate, and was therefore the arbiter between General Jackson and Mr. Adams. The logical result could only be the success of Mr. Adams, and that event followed on the first ballot in the House, thirteen States going to the New England candidate. At the inauguration of President Adams General Jackson shook hands

with him, but this ended their friendly relations.

At the next election for President, Adams was defeated by Jackson.

Now the "old man eloquent," as he was soon to be called, was to enter Congress as a Representative from the Plymouth district. Single-handed, he was to stand between fire-eating and temporizing cohorts, for sixteen years, defying, defeating, baiting, maddening and disparaging the Solid South that had proudly challenged the ill-will of all the North, and had aroused the unforgiving spirit of but one real champion. There is not in the history of legislation another campaign so long, by a single gladiator so full of fortitude, so careless of danger, so deaf to accommodation. Senator, Ambassador, Minister, President, as he had been—all his early public services dwindle into the deep shadows when he stands in the bright light that history throws on him after he became the hated-one of a slave-holding and planter-fearing Congress which he alone visited with unmitigated contempt.

November 19, 1846, he was stricken with paralysis in Boston. On February 21, 1848, he appeared in his seat as usual. At 1.30 o'clock p. m., as the Speaker was putting a vote there were cries: "Stop! Stop! Mr. Adams!" The aged man was insensible. The House adjourned. He was taken to a couch in the Speaker's room. There, late in the afternoon he whispered: "Thank the officers of the House." Soon afterward: "This is the last of earth! I am content." He thereafter lay for forty-eight hours and died February 23, 1848. He was buried under the portal of the church at Quincy, Mass., beside his immortal father and mother.

HENRY CLAY.

1777-1852

"THE MILL-BOY OF THE SLASHES."

Henry Clay was born April 12, 1777, in Hanover County, Virginia, in a

neighborhood called the "Slashes"—a place in the woods which had been "slashed" or cut over—the good timber taken, but the ground not cleared properly. His father was an eloquent Baptist preacher, and died when Henry, the fifth in a family of seven, was only four years old. There is a tradition that, while the dead body of the minister lay in the house, Tarleton, the English raider, took some of the property of the place and left a handful of gold on the widow's table. This money the mother of Henry Clay indignantly threw into the fireplace.

Henry Clay went to school in a log cabin with a hard clay floor. He went to mill on the Pamunkey River, riding a pony with a rope bridle, and carrying the "bread timber" in a bag. Hence he became the "Mill-Boy of the Slashes" and ran for President on that industrious and democratical recollection.

His mother married Captain Henry Watkins, who placed Henry Clay, by this time fourteen years old, in a retail store at Richmond, and afterward obtained for the stepson a clerkship in the office of the Clerk of the High Court of Chancery. At this time Henry Clay was an awkward country boy. His companions made some sport of his appearance, but he was studious and earned the good will of George Wythe, famous as the benefactor of brilliant young men. After four years of clerkship, Henry Clay entered the law office of Robert Brooke, Attorney-General, and was indulgently admitted to practice.

In 1799 he married Lucretia Hart, who became the mother of eleven children. He soon was able to purchase Ashland, an estate of 600 acres near Lexington, which became his future home. Like all great orators, he was extremely easy to come toward; he was a pleasant man to meet. This characteristic never deserted him, and he early became a favorite with his neighbors, a favored son of his State, and anon the idol of a National party. In the discussions attending the making of a Kentucky Constitution, Mr. Clay was

ardently against slavery, without effect, although his fame as an orator became so well established that he was elected to the Legislature in 1803. Burr came through the country, bent on some kind of a filibustering enterprise, and was arrested. Clay appeared as Burr's counsel. Nine years later, meeting Aaron Burr, Clay refused to take his hand. In 1806 the State proudly sent him on to Washington as United States Senator for an unexpired term, to bring honor to Kentucky in the debates of Congress. He was not quite eligible as to age, being less than thirty years old. He returned to Kentucky with pleasure, and at once became Speaker of the House. As hatred of England increased, he suggested that Kentuckians, particularly the legislators, should wear only such clothes as were the product of home manufacture. For this, Humphrey Marshall denounced Clay as a demagogue, and a duel followed.

In 1809 Henry Clay filled another unexpired term as United States Senator, and spoke with earnestness in behalf of home manufactures. He opposed, and possibly defeated, the recharter of the Bank, and was outspoken against England. At the end of his short term he was elected to represent the Lexington district in Congress. So great was Clay's fame that he was elected Speaker by a large majority. When Henry Clay carried President Madison to war he did it entirely by the force of eloquence, as a result of Western feeling. The war went ill, despite Clay's eloquence, and after he had been a second time elected Speaker he resigned to take a place on the Peace Commission in Europe. It is thought it was his object to interpose objections against a humiliating treaty. It is usually said of him that he alone made the English resign the right of navigation in the Mississippi. The labors at Ghent lasted for five months. The war ended as it began, yet Clay declared in Congress afterward that he would have acted the same way again. At Paris, he met Madame de Staël. He went to London on diplo-

matic business. He returned to America, greatly honored, in September, 1815, and again became Speaker of the House of Representatives. He was offered the mission to Russia, and later the portfolio of War. Both offers were too small. It already seemed that merit and popularity must raise him to the Presidency as soon as he should reach the proper age. He wished to be Secretary of State, so as to get into succession, but his colleague at Ghent, John Quincy Adams, was chosen for the coveted place. Thus, as early as 1816, his hopes were dimmed. Nevertheless he again became Speaker and was for the time being a much greater officer than the Secretary of State. He became the eloquent proponent of taxes for roads and canals and protection of home industry. He viewed President Monroe with enmity, and that peaceable chief magistrate grieved daily at the opposition that was rising against an Administration that deserved no enemies.

He was still regarded as a remarkable orator and a brilliant if somewhat erratic public man. It was deemed to be good statesmanship to keep the Speakership in the West. He made many speeches in behalf of the South American Republics. He possessed, by all accounts, many more natural gifts than he made diligent use of. He allowed slower and less promising athletes to outrun him over the course. His next great appearance as a legislator was in the Missouri Compromise. He resigned his Speakership in order to repair his shattered fortunes. It will be seen that his Presidential hopes, for some unknown reason, had led him into a public course that was not logical, for he was bent on pleasing the North with protection and river-and-harbor bills, and the South with slavery, so that he was more than likely to offend both sections. He was now called "the great pacificator." It was in these days he said he would "rather be right than President."

In Kentucky his fame was secure. The State lost the Speakership to Virginia in his absence, and the pressure

on him was heavy to return to Congress. On his reacceptance of a seat in 1824 he was again elected Speaker by an overwhelming vote, and became an open candidate to succeed Monroe as President. But, at the elections of 1824, Jackson led, Adams was second, and Crawford third. Clay, being only fourth, could not be voted for in the House, and yet became President-maker—a strange addition to the peace-making chapters of his life. He elected Adams, and took the portfolio of State, evidently still under the belief that tradition would continue to give the Presidency to the Secretaries of State. This acceptance of an office that he had coveted in 1816 he regarded in after life as a critical error of his career. The cry of bargain-and-sale went up from Jackson's friends, making Clay's last days in the Speakership bitter, with challenges to mortal combat and scandal. Yet Clay retired with the record of being the ablest Speaker America had produced, and his course in the House is still the subject of widespread technical study.

Mr. Clay's health and pride both suffered while he was Secretary of State. He did not like the office nor its labors. The sacrifices he had made to take it had been fruitless of good. What he had thought would be a step to the Presidency was a stumbling block. He went into private life at fifty-two still a great party chief—to the ordinary apprehension the greatest man in the Union. By this time he had grown imperious, and was a man whom lesser souls would delight to disappoint, thinking he needed stern discipline. There was no one to challenge his sway among men save a broken-hearted old backwoodsman, newly elected President, whom Clay thought would soon be enmeshed in trouble and stultified through incompetency to fill a great office. For a time this owner of Ashland lived at home as a farmer, striving to cultivate the agricultural and pastoral graces that had broadened Jefferson's hold on the people. He refused seats in Congress and the Legislature. He was a lover of good horses.

He found his personal fame still very great. He reappeared at Washington in December, 1831, as Senator from Kentucky and candidate for Congress on a platform of antagonism to "spoils," and favoring high tariff, river-and-harbor bills, and United States Bank. Clay's party was called the National Republican. It met at Baltimore and nominated him for President by acclaim. But the debate on Bank and high tariff went on in the Senate where Clay had to compromise on the tariff to please the South, thus maddening the "tariff barons" of the North, and Jackson vetoed the recharter of the Bank with the certainty that there were more debtors than creditors, each with a single vote. Clay was beaten before he entered the race.

At seventy-four he was sent by unanimous voice of his Legislature to the United States Senate. Through the great debate on the compromise of 1850 Clay grew in genuine statesmanship. After he threw off the hope of the Presidency he was truly an American to boast of. When he arrived at Washington in December, 1851, he was too ill to go to the Senate. He said, on his bed of sharp distress, "Was there ever man had such friends?"—for the solicitude of the Nation was as astonishing as it was gratifying. He died on June 29, 1852, in the seventy-sixth year of his age.

DANIEL WEBSTER.

1782-1852

THE EXPOUNDER OF THE CONSTITUTION

Daniel Webster was born at Salisbury, N. H., January 17, 1782. As a boy he was sickly, and could not speak in school, lacking the confidence of an orator. His people, by dint of affectionate sacrifice, sent him to Dartmouth College. After this he studied law in the office of Christopher Gore at Boston, and was admitted to the bar of Massachusetts in 1805.

He opened his first office at Boscawen, near his early home, but soon

removed to Portsmouth. He married Grace Fletcher, whom he devoutly loved. His practice was gradually established, and as a result of the oratorical talent which he displayed, he was elected to Congress in 1813, as a Federalist, and lukewarm proponent of the war with Great Britain. Yet he aided Calhoun nobly. The almost seditious Hartford Convention threw him into obscurity, and he removed to Boston.

There he entered, as a brilliant lawyer, into a society of college-bred men, who were earning large fees or harvesting ample profits as merchants.

The Massachusetts Constitutional Convention met at Boston in November, 1820. All the learned magistrates and advocates of the Commonwealth were called upon to serve. Webster represented the interests of property and was the advocate of the patrician classes, but without narrowness. He came out of the convention praised by all who had property, office and standing, as a most noble lawmaker.

On Friday, December 22, 1820, he delivered the address on the landing of the Pilgrims, an effort which gave him instantly a national fame as an orator.

Thereafter Daniel Webster, when he spoke by appointment, was sure of "a sea of upturned faces."

The pressure upon him to enter political life grew stronger, and in 1823 he again went to Congress from Boston. He was a good supporter of the Administration in the House, and the leader of that body while Clay was Secretary of State. His elevation to the Senate was regarded with misgivings by the President, who dreaded his absence from the popular branch of Congress. He was to sit a quarter of a century in the upper House, with only a slight intermission, when he should be Secretary of State.

Mrs. Webster died at New York, January 21, 1828, while on her way to Washington to share her husband's new honors. The blow fell on the great orator with crushing force. He returned to his duties as a surcease of sorrow, and was in the mood that would

easily bear the animadversions caused by his support of the high tariff in 1828, which made Calhoun rebel. When Hayne opened his attack on New England and Webster, the Senator vouchsafed a fine reply, and when Hayne answered that reply, Webster made his immortal speech—"When my eyes shall be turned to behold for the last time the sun in heaven, may I not see him shining on the broken and dishonored fragments of a once glorious Union; on States dissevered, discordant, belligerent; on a land rent with civil feuds, or drenched, it may be, in fraternal blood." This glorious day was January 26, 1830. It was then he cried: "Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable!" On that slogan Grant took Buckner, Pemberton, Lee; Sherman marched from Chattanooga down and up the Southern Confederacy. It is justly called the summit of Daniel Webster's fame.

Two years after the death of his wife Webster married Catherine Bayard Le-Roy, of New York. His loving brother Ezekiel died. He seemed to part with the past, and the remainder of his career offers less delectable ground to his admirers.

When Andrew Jackson thought he ought to move toward the hanging of Calhoun, he asked Webster's aid, and received it—a most happy circumstance in Webster's life. For the rest he fought Jackson all the way through, meeting defeat at every turn. Calhoun came down out of the Senate's chair, and began his seventeen-year duel with Webster—Clay, Webster, Calhoun, such was the order of their merit; euphony and human judgment have joined in the verdict.

Mr. Webster made a short trip to Europe in 1839, and was glad to speak for Harrison in 1840, some of his addresses giving him broad opportunity to dress the wounds Jackson had given him and his doctrines. He accepted the State Department under Harrison, and was deep in the Ashburton treaty when Harrison died and Tyler came in as President. When Tyler killed the

Bank, as Jackson would have done, all his Whig Cabinet took leave save Daniel Webster. Henry Clay's music was too quick in step for him; he stayed with Tyler, and for other than Senatorial and oratorical purposes was politically as dead as Tyler. But he made an admirable Secretary of State, and his professional sense informed him that his country needed him at the post he held. When his work was done, in May, 1843, he resigned, which was fast enough to meet his views of dignity and proper procedure, retiring to his farm at Marshfield, Massachusetts. He spoke for Clay in the campaign which elected Polk, practiced law, and was re-elected United States Senator to oppose Texan annexation and war with Mexico, taking his seat in 1845. His career in the Senate was to culminate with the 7th-of-March speech, which was to indorse Henry Clay and becloud the setting of his own sun. In the first place, the Democrats, expanding on every side, were crying "54:40 or fight." This parallel on the North American continent might have added to our granaries more wheat than has so far been raised in the world, outlandish as that declaration may seem, but Webster was for the forty-ninth parallel, which is 340 miles south. There is no other potential wheat field so large as the one we gave up by Daniel Webster's advice. His action aroused a retaliatory investigation of his financial accounts, which were always in bad order, and friends thereafter took his private business in charge. He spoke bitterly against Texas, with its new slave-holding Senators, saying that the annexation would "turn the Constitution into a deformity"; and certainly a Northerner who did not desire that the Union should grow on the north did not wish to see it spread on the south at the expense of a sister Republic that had abolished slavery.

In 1847 he visited the Southern States, which doubtless affected his views on the race question. His son was killed in the Mexican War, and his daughter died in 1847. The son's

body arrived from Mexico only three days after the daughter's funeral.* He then prepared at Marshfield a tomb for himself and his family. Clay would not support Taylor's candidacy for President, and when the Achilles also sulking at Marshfield was allured from his tent, he could give to Taylor only such support as Hamilton once gave to John Adams.

We next approach the 7th of March, 1850—that historical time when the silvery-voiced Clay, easily first in any circle of men that would gather where he might be, came up to Washington, a feeble-bodied statesman, and carried the olive branch that no one else could make acceptable to all. In the 7th-of-March speech, Daniel Webster accepted Clay's views. Why was this action so ignoble in Daniel Webster, if it were patriotic in Clay? It dimmed Webster's great fame—why did it not tarnish Clay's?

Probably the view of Webster is sectional, while Clay is considered from a broader field. Clay was a Southern slaveholder, who had put his ear to the ground and heard the anti-slavery swell. Clay knew John Quincy Adams, and the slow but awful ruin he had wrought in the House on slavery.

Millard Fillmore, suddenly President, called Webster to be Secretary of State, an office which was accepted July 23, 1850. December 21 he wrote to Hülsemann, an Austrian diplomat representing his empire at Washington, a rebuke for his impudence in holding that America had no right to ascertain the true extent of Kossuth's insurrection, and Hülsemann sailed away in wrath. It was a good letter, sound in every sense, but it has kept many a dollar's worth of our goods out of Austria in revenge.

In 1852 Mr. Webster was left undecieved by his friends, and disputed with his chief the honors of the Clay compromise, but Fillmore had 133 to Webster's 29 ballots in the Whig National Convention, and Scott beat Fillmore. So deep was Daniel Webster's chagrin

*Daniel Webster's third child, afterward Colonel Fletcher Webster, was killed in the Battle of Bull Run.

that he advised electors to vote for Pierce, which led politicians to believe that the great orator had lost his head altogether.

He was a sufferer from hay fever, and his health was impaired. In May, 1852, at Marshfield, he was seriously hurt in a runaway accident. In August he was able to return to Washington, but remained there only until the 8th of September. He consulted a physician at Boston on the 20th. This was the last time he was ever there. He failed rapidly in his sick room at Marshfield. On the evening of October 23, 1852, the aged and sleeping lion, as if questioned or doubted, shook himself out of his lethargy, as of yore, and cried: "I still live!"—his last words, which have linked him in memory so firmly to the minds of Americans.

JOHN C. CALHOUN.

1782-1850.

THE ARCH-PROPHET OF SLAVERY.

The attention of the reader is here invited to the consideration of a career in which the personality of the statesman entirely vanishes, and by that fact alone we may see that we enter a field of undiminishing intellectual interest. The life of John C. Calhoun was itself the Koran of Slavery; it was a chapter on logic. What is logic? It is a working theory of the truth. A meets B, who convinces him; A meets C, a logician superior to B, who unconvinces him; A meets D, a still better logician, who reconvinces him—and so on, ad infinitum. It is vital, in reading of John C. Calhoun, to know that he was, in his own opinion at least, the best logician alive in his time, and that, beginning with the generally accepted premise of the Caucasian world, that Labor and Capital were two things, he wrought out what he regarded as a perfect theory showing (1) that slavery was right and good, and (2) that Abolitionists were wicked and bad; furthermore, slavery was a natural condition, so that he who lamented the servitude

of the negro must also deplore the fact that the dog could not speak, nor the horse escape from his captivity. These were Calhoun's views. No other statesman of America, accepting his premise, destroyed his conclusions. A poem or rhyme has recently appeared, to startle the world, describing "the white man's burden," which is the rejuvenation of the logic of John C. Calhoun. To overcome the force raised up by the prophecy and teachings of Calhoun required 100 battles; and the ideas of the South Carolinian were then uprooted previous to the making of an ideal basis on which to logically account for the actions of the white race. As a matter of fact, slavery stood in the way of the development of the Caucasian; this was instinctively conceived; its abolition in the New World by war was the sternest and most radical proceeding history has witnessed.

Inasmuch as there is but one aspect to the life of Calhoun, we shall not go far amiss in giving his chief utterance at the beginning. It must be read carefully: "I hold that there never yet has existed a wealthy and civilized society in which one portion of the community did not, in point of fact, live on the other. I might well challenge a comparison between them (the other methods of distribution) and the more direct, simple and patriarchal mode by which the labor of the African race is, among us, commanded by the European. I fearlessly assert that the existing relation between the two races in the South, against which these blind fanatics are waging war, forms the most solid and durable foundation on which to rear free and stable institutions. It is useless to disguise the fact. There is, and always has been, in an advanced stage of civilization, a conflict between Labor and Capital. The condition of society in the South exempts us from the disorders and dangers resulting from this conflict; and explains why it is that the condition of the slave-holding States has been so much more stable and quiet than that of the North. The advantages of the former in this respect will become

more and more manifest if left undisturbed by interference from without, as the country advances in wealth and numbers."

He was born of Irish Presbyterian parents in the Calhoun settlement, Abbeville District, S. C., March 18, 1782, a third son. His father died when the son was a boy, and he lived on the farm with his mother till he was eighteen. His power to peer into the nature of things was born with him. At eighteen, his brother-in-law, Dr. Waddell, a Presbyterian clergyman, prepared him for Yale College, whence, in 1804, he graduated with high honors. He then attended the Litchfield Law School, and was a lawyer in 1807, practicing at Abbeville, S. C. English outrages on the high seas were frequent. He drew up fiery resolutions, supported them with a speech, and was elected to the Legislature. In 1811 he was sent to Congress, and for the rest of his life was rarely out of the public service. He married Floride Calhoun and removed to Bath, on the Savannah River. His wife brought him a small fortune. Under the customs of his region, he was fitted for continuous congressional life. He was for war, and Henry Clay, the Speaker, appointed him (in effect) Chairman of Foreign Relations. He thus made an entry as remarkable as Clay's. December 12th he delivered his first speech. He was never guilty of the hectoring or bullying tone attributed to Southern leaders; rather, he served as the caisson from which the hectors and bullies obtained all their ammunition, save their boasts. His New England education at this time was reflected in his views, which were essentially those of Clay as to internal improvements and Bank. These were changed afterward.

President Monroe made Calhoun Secretary of War, and he was praised for his efficiency in the department.

He was easily elected Vice-President of the United States, while there was no election between Jackson and Adams, for President. Calhoun favored Jackson's election as President in the House, and was a bitter opponent

of Adams, whose final election he scouted as counterfeit. In 1828 the Vice-President was re-elected with Jackson as President. All this time slavery had been on Calhoun's mind.

When Andrew Jackson denied to Calhoun a further national career, all personal matters went out of the South Carolinian's mind. He became a pro-slavery fanatic, as powerful in conviction as John Brown on the other side. Calhoun believed reason directed him; John Brown believed God sent him. Such are the men whom the ages respect.

Calhoun declared that "so far from the Constitution being the work of the American people collectively, no such political body, either now or ever, did exist." Nullification went forward in South Carolina. As soon as the convention passed the ordinance of Nullification, which was to apply February 1, 1833, Calhoun resigned the vice-presidency, in order to take the senatorial seat vacated by Hayne, who became Governor of South Carolina. He was now at the head of a South Carolina party.

There is little interest attaching to Calhoun's career outside of slavery. Briefly, he wanted more State's rights; retrenchment and economy; he thought Money-and-State worse than Church-and-State, and therefore was against the Bank; free trade; no bond-selling; no "spoils." It was not this part of his career that brought on the Civil War.

December 27, 1837, Calhoun, in the Senate, offered his resolutions beginning, that the Union was purely a confederation of sovereign States; that the intermeddling of States, or of "a combination of their citizens with the domestic institutions or policy of the others, on any ground, or under any pretext whatever, political, moral or religious, with a view to their alteration or subversion," was unconstitutional.

England was beginning to cast reflections on our "free institutions." She was setting our slaves at liberty when she could.

When the United States and England joined to prevent the African slave trade, Calhoun, in voting for the treaty, swallowed a bitter dose, because he thought it reflected on his moral nature.

Nullification was forgotten, and South Carolina nominated Calhoun for President in the campaign of 1844. He resigned his seat in the Senate to be ready, if called, but he was not called. A Southern man was chosen in Polk, but the country would not support a Senator who, like Calhoun, put the Union second in all his calculations.

When Polk became President there was no South Carolinian who would sit in the United States Senate while his Prophet had no seat, and Calhoun, equally loyal to the situation, accepted the seat which his fellow citizens had resigned. Without Calhoun, it seems, we should not have had Texas or California.

North of Louisiana was Oregon; where did Oregon begin and end? It was Calhoun's advice that we should maintain "a wise and masterly inactivity"—let our country grow up till we could push out the British. This "masterly inactivity" was the prod with which many of the commanding Generals were afterward harassed by editors in the Civil War. Calhoun had no desire to obtain more free territory. He was in an odd position during the Mexican war; he had stirred it up; he, with grief, saw it entered on, because he had secured all he wished, in Texas; the rest of the Mexican booty would ruin his cause.

As the territories which had been pillaged from Mexico began to show free-State proclivities, Calhoun, in December, 1848, held a Slave caucus of sixty-nine Southern Senators and Representatives in the Senate Chamber. From this caucus issued an "Address of the Southern Delegates in Congress to their Constituents." With that, Calhoun's work was done. He had erected a Solid South. Yet so few (forty) signed the address that Calhoun was sorely distressed.

Calhoun was dying. He entered the Senate, leaning on friendly arms. His



ABRAHAM LINCOLN

speech of March 4, 1850, was read by Mr. Mason.

He died March 31, 1850. One of his last speeches was in these words, uttered feebly: "The South! The poor South! God knows what will become of her!"

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

1809-1865.

THE GREAT LIBERATOR.

He was born February 12, 1809, in Hardin County, Ky. He had lived in log cabins on the Ohio River. His mother had died when he was eight; his father married Sally Bush, toward whom, as step-mother, Lincoln nurtured the warmest love until he died. At nineteen he went on a flat-boat to New Orleans. On his return, in 1830, he split the timber for a rail fence around ten acres of ground, and built a log cabin, in Macon County, Ill. Soon after, he built the flat-boat, as above, floated it down the Sangamon, the Illinois and the Mississippi to New Orleans. He then returned and served as clerk in a country store at New Salem, Ill. In 1832 he was a captain in the Blackhawk war, and became celebrated in the frontier army as a strong man and the best story-teller anybody had ever heard. He read the *Lives of Washington, of Franklin and of Clay*. He was postmaster at New Salem, and learned to survey land with instruments. At last, he studied law and was elected to the Legislature (at Vandalia) as early as 1834, serving until the end of the session beginning in 1840, and declining further election. He tried to read Shakespeare thoroughly, but the deep interest he took in living people made mimic life seem trivial to him. In the year 1835 occurred the tragedy that changed the most joyous to the saddest of men. He fell in love with Anne Rutledge, a beautiful young woman, who accepted him, after a painful chapter of love with another man. In her troubles she fell ill, and called constantly for Lin-

coln. He reached her before she died, and her death shocked him so that it was believed his reason would be unsteady. A noble friend, Bowlin Greene, took Lincoln to his cabin, and brought him back to a sense of duty and manhood, after weeks of careful nursing. When Greene died, in 1842, Lincoln spoke at his funeral in the Masonic lodge: "His voice was choked with deep emotion; he stood a few moments while his lips quivered in the effort to form the words of fervent praise he sought to utter, and the tears ran down his yellow and shriveled cheeks. Every heart was hushed at the spectacle. After repeated efforts he found it impossible to speak, and strode away, bitterly sobbing, to the widow's carriage and was driven from the scene." It was at this time he learned the piece which the people call "Lincoln's poem"—"O why should the spirit of mortal be proud?" The Legislature removed to Springfield, and Lincoln went into legal partnership with John T. Stuart. The Lincoln and Douglas leadership began in the Legislature of 1836, when both statesmen were young. The rivalry passed over the metes and bounds of politics and entered the realm of love, for when Lincoln again fell under the charms of a beautiful woman—this time Mary Todd, whom he married—Douglas carried on a striking flirtation with the same lady, and was with difficulty persuaded to leave the field to Lincoln. On this, Lincoln attempted to recede, but failed. The wedding was fixed, the mansion was lit, the feast was spread, the guests assembled, but the groom came not. The feast was left untouched, the guests departed, the house was darkened. Lincoln was again in the hands of his friends, who feared his gathering humiliation would make life intolerable. Strange as it may seem, the haughty belle and the eccentric lover were brought together afterward, and were married November 4, 1842. A legal partnership was formed with Stephen T. Logan, and, soon after, a final one with William H. Herndon, Lincoln's principal biographer, whose

attitude toward Mrs. Lincoln must be carefully considered, because his unrelenting hostility may have grown out of a mutual antipathy strengthened by business relations, and aggravated by a partner's playful children. There can be no doubt that Mrs. Lincoln loved Abraham Lincoln, and made him a faithful wife. His tragic death, when she sat by his side, beclouded her remaining years. In 1846 Lincoln was elected to Congress over the celebrated Peter Cartwright, but failed to satisfy his constituents, as he opposed the Mexican war too emphatically after it was well begun. Doubtless this very experience fitted him to be patient with Butternuts and Copperheads afterward in the deep gloom in 1862-3. He did not seek re-election because he could not have succeeded, and he would have accepted a moderately good Federal office had it been within his reach. He made one or two speeches in Congress, but caused only a small ripple in the wide stream of politics at the capital, and it is the only chapter in his public life where he did not rise far above mediocrity.

We are therefore briefly introduced to the Hon. Abraham Lincoln, of the firm of Lincoln & Herndon, lawyers, at Springfield. The astonishing fecundity of the story-teller, as remembered in earlier days, was not so noticeable in Mr. Lincoln now, and, instead, periods of the deepest melancholy settled over him at unforeseen moments. The testimony is without contradiction, that the famous entertainer, weaned from pleasant scenes or company, would at once fall into an abyss of sadness very trying to the nerves of those who loved him. But so vast was his power to suffer that he never conveyed to another soul the precise character of the thoughts that were afflicting him.

United with marked eccentricity and deep occasional melancholia, was the fact that Abraham Lincoln was usually accounted the homeliest man one would ever see. He told this story himself: "One day a stranger accosted me on the cars: 'Excuse me, sir, but I have

an article that belongs to you.' 'How is that?' The stranger took a jack-knife from his pocket. 'This,' said he, 'was given to me several years ago to give to the first man I should meet who might be considered homlier than myself. From this on, the knife is yours.'" It will be well to give Herndon's careful description of Lincoln when he was President-elect: "Mr. Lincoln was six feet four inches high, fifty-one years old, having good health and no gray hairs, or but few, on his head. He was thin, wiry, sinewy, raw-boned; thin through the breast to the back, and narrow across the shoulders; standing, he leaned forward—was what may be called stoop-shouldered, inclined to the consumptive by build. His usual weight was 180 pounds. His organization—rather, his structure and functions—worked slowly. His blood had to run a long distance from his heart to the extremities of his frame, and his nerve force had to travel through dry ground a long distance before his muscles were obedient to his will. His structure was loose and leathery; his body was shrunk and shriveled; he had dark skin, dark hair, and looked woe-struck. The whole man, body and mind, worked slowly, as if it needed oiling. Physically, he was a very powerful man, lifting with ease 400 and in one case 600 pounds. His mind was like his body, and worked slowly but strongly. Hence, there was but little bodily or mental wear and tear in him. When he walked, he moved cautiously but firmly; his long arms and giant hands swung down by his side. He walked with inner tread, the inner sides of his feet being parallel. He put the whole foot flat down on the ground at once, not landing on the heel; he likewise lifted his foot all at once, not rising from the toe, and hence he had no spring to his walk. In sitting down on a common chair he was no taller than ordinary men. His legs and arms were abnormally, unnaturally long. It was only when he stood up that he loomed above other men. His head was long, and tall from the base of the brain and from the eyebrows.

His head ran backward, his forehead rising as it ran back at a long angle, like Clay's. The size of his hat, measured at the hatter's block, was 7 1-8, his head being from ear to ear 6 1-2, and from the front to the back of the brain 8. Thus measured, it was not below the medium size. His forehead was narrow but high; his hair was dark, almost black, and lay floating when his fingers or the winds lifted it, piled up at random. His cheek bones were high, sharp and prominent; his jaws were long and up-curved; his nose was large, long, blunt, and a little awry toward the left eye; his chin was sharp and up-curved; his eyebrows cropped out like a huge rock on the brow of a hill; his long, sallow face was wrinkled and dry, with a hair here and there on the surface; his cheeks were leathery; his ears were large, and ran out almost at right angles from his head, caused partly by heavy hats and partly by nature; his lower lip was thick, hanging and under-curved, while his chin, up-curved, reached for the lip; his neck was neat and trim, his head being well balanced on it; there was a lone mole on the right cheek, and Adam's apple on his throat. Thus," concludes Herndon, "walked, acted and looked Abraham Lincoln. He was not a pretty man, nor was he an ugly one; he was a homely man, careless of his looks, plain-looking and plain-acting. He had no pomp, display or dignity, so-called. He was a sad-looking man; his melancholy dripped from him as he walked."

What was there, then, in 1850-2, when Clay, Webster and Calhoun had made their compromise and descended into their graves that should cause gigantic events to center around Mr. Lincoln, of the firm of Lincoln & Herndon, a man for whom his intimate friends were infinitely compassionate? It was, plainly, the fact that he was the most interesting man whom the common people had met; they told each other so, and it spread over the North. The man was as natural as a new-born babe. At a pathetic passage in a woman's speech at Springfield, Abra-

ham Lincoln, in the middle of the audience, burst into a hoarse laugh, and was frightened to think the audience did not all laugh; nobody could guess why he had done this; nobody could tell what he would do next; but the masses came toward him as if he were father, brother, companion, fellow-blunderer. His very humiliations increased his hold on the hearts of the lowly. But, again, why did the people single him? Because, first, of his battery of outpouring humanity-rays; because of his deep love of the race, and all its individuals. "God," said he, "must have liked common people or He wouldn't have made so many of them." Yet his wit was keen, too. A windy orator closed his oration. "That young chap reminds me of a steamer I once saw on the Ohio River. It had an eight-foot boiler and a twelve-foot whistle, and every time the whistle blew, the boat stopped." "These people who argue State sovereignty," he said, "remind me of the fellow who contended that the proper place for the big kettle was inside the little one." Lincoln's client had been attacked, and had acted in self-defense. "My client was like the man with the pitchfork on his shoulder; out came a fierce dog from the farmyard. In parrying off the brute with the fork, its prongs stuck into the dog and killed it. 'What made you kill my dog?' cried the farmer. 'What made him bite me?' 'But why did you not go at him with the other end of the pitchfork?' 'Why didn't he come at me with *his* other end?'" With this, Lincoln whirled an imaginary dog in his hands, on the floor, and pushed it tail first at the jury, who gave him the verdict with uproarious merriment. A commercial agency requested a report on the financial standing of a neighbor of Lincoln's, and Lincoln replied: "I am well acquainted with Mr. A—— and know his circumstances. First of all, he has a wife and baby; together they ought to be worth \$50,000 to any man. Secondly, he has an office in which there is a table worth \$1.50 and three chairs worth, say, \$1. Last of all, there is, in

one corner, a large rat-hole, which is worth looking into." If Lincoln were in talking mood, men could not afford to miss what he said, neither could anybody repress Lincoln's desire to talk. It is averred that Lincoln's best friend of all was Judge David Davis. In court Lincoln was telling yarns, and Judge Davis cried out: "Come, come, Mr. Lincoln, I can't stand this! There is no use to carry on two courts at the same time. I must adjourn mine or yours, and I think yours will have to be the one." This brought things to rights at once. "What was that Lincoln was telling?" anxiously asked the Judge, as soon as court was out for dinner.

Nor was he all fun, as impertinent people were sure to learn. A woman wrote asking for a "sentiment" and his autograph. He replied: "Dear Madam: When you ask a stranger for that which is of interest only to yourself, always inclose a stamp; there's your sentiment; and here's your autograph. A. Lincoln."

Neither was it his wit nor his keen defense that attracted men. The photographer, Hesler, of Chicago, testified: "I wondered who on earth could want a picture of such a singularly homely man, but before the sitting was over I was charmed by his wit, so fascinated by his genial humor, and the noble personality of the man, that I forgot his physical peculiarities. Long before I was aware of his identity I knew that he was great and good, with a soul as sweet and pure as a child's." Horace Greeley said: "I doubt whether man, woman or child, white or black, bound or free, virtuous or vicious, ever accosted or reached forth a hand to Abraham Lincoln and detected in his countenance and manner any repugnance or shrinking from the proper contact, any assumption of superiority or betrayal of disdain." Frederick Douglass, the orator of his race, testified: "Mr. Lincoln is the only white man with whom I have ever talked, or in whose presence I have ever been, who did not consciously or unconsciously betray to me that he

recognized my color." And it is not at all certain that he *did* note the color of the man, if the affair were between only the twain.

It is not necessary to believe that one after whom all common people followed, or rather one with whom all common people went alongside, was at all oblivious of his power. He said the best natural politician he ever met was an Illinois Democrat, whose political creed was: "Find out what Abe Lincoln wants you to do, and don't do it!"

To these qualities in Lincoln was added the great gift of poetry. He spoke in figures, and they were tropes that, while they might shock the polite, never failed to illustrate and ornament what he was saying to the humble. His letter to James S. Conkling, to be quoted anon, offers a fine example of his happy expression, in simple and homely political terms, of sentiments that only a hero could hold so steadfastly as they were held by Abraham Lincoln. It is to be deduced from what has been narrated, that, first, the people, gathered in a village post office, then a county, then a valley, then a State, would expect to see Lincoln prominent in the nation. When it became a matter of State pride, the presidency was none too good for him. He made no personal impression on the country at large until his name was at the front among presidential candidates of the new Republican (not yet Anti-Slavery) party.

He was probably best fitted to be President of the common people of all the statesmen who have held the office. He studied the elements of the population with unremitting delight. A new face was a new friend to set laughing—to impress with the superiority of the story-teller—for here was a man who could not hide his greatness of soul under either an exterior uncouth or a striking familiarity of speech. Major G. M. McConnel narrates how, as a boy, his father sent him to ask Mr. Lincoln, the lawyer, the particulars of a case in court. The lad met Mr. Lincoln on the street. The tall man sat

down on the curb, put his silk hat between his knees, and, out of a miscellaneous collection of documents, found the particular case. Then he talked to the lad so fraternally about it that young McConnel carried away an idea as perfect as if it had been an account of a fishing expedition. For the nonce, Lincoln was a lad, too, explaining the case in a lad's language, with all the fraternity of youth. Thus, it is sometimes avowed that Abraham Lincoln seemed essentially different to every man he met. This judgment must be restricted to common people. Toward those who entertained aristocratic ideas, he was cold and enigmatical. His son Robert was going to a banquet given to Professor Longfellow, the poet, by many eminent scholars. "Go, my son, but if you are able to maintain a respectable conversation with those distinguished gentlemen, you'll do more than your father was ever able to accomplish."

As the fame spread of this approachable and unapproachable man, this simple and profound mind, there was no lack of self-appointed political managers and stablemen, to caparison the steed and watch over the presidential provender. The secret sagacity of the man; his utter inability to ask for favors, to lean for advice on "wise men," was a maddening phenomenon to a host of politicians. "Lincoln had the people"; now how to minify and belittle Lincoln as to fit him into a smaller office and let a figurehead go in front? That was the problem of the scholarly Senators, and they could not solve it, because Lincoln was great enough to desire the chief office for himself. When Lincoln canvassed the State with Douglas, in joint debate, he took grounds that would defeat him (Lincoln) for the Senatorship in the conservative Legislature of Illinois, in order to make Douglas assume counter positions that would defeat him for the presidency two years later. Lincoln was as quick politically as Henry Clay, and was on the right side of Mason and Dixon's line.

When the senatorial campaign was

over and Douglas was elected, he was called into Ohio, and thither Lincoln followed in the autumn of 1859. At the moment of the John Brown raid, Lincoln was in Kansas. He became, with events, hardly more radical in his utterances, and it was readily believed that he had sacrificed his political interests in his slowness to exhibit a strong repugnance to slavery in the South.

Early in 1860, at the State House in Springfield, Ill., a meeting of Hatch, Judd, Peck, Grimshaw and others modestly launched the presidential candidacy of Abraham Lincoln—Seward, however, being looked on as the chief aspirant for party honors. In October, 1859, Lincoln had been invited to speak at Cooper Institute, New York City, the action being an unsolicited friendly move by Bryant, the poet, and others. The address was made to an overflowing house in February, 1860. Lincoln appeared there as rustic as the early Patrick Henry. The audience was agog to hear the witty stories he was now famous for telling, but he, warned by the Senators and political magnates, kept close to his arguments, which made a deep impression. His speech here and other addresses in New England, where he got near to the people in his own inimitable way, made tremendous political hits, and when he returned to Springfield it could not be concealed from Mr. Seward's friends that Seward was to be opposed by a powerful rival. On May 9 and 10 the Illinois State Convention met at Decatur. To that convention John Hanks, a cousin, brought two of the fence rails that Lincoln had split in 1830, and as America, from the Alleghenies westward, was still a primeval settlement, the idea of "Lincoln, the Rail-Splitter," awakened the frantic enthusiasm of the pioneers. But the time was short, and it looked as if Lincoln's candidacy were too young—he must wait. There were not enough Lincoln States in the East. The National Convention met a week later, May 16, 1860, at Chicago, in a wigwam, built purposely large, where local talent could delegate itself to

create an atmosphere favorable to Lincoln's interests. David Davis opened "Lincoln headquarters" at the Tremont House. The wigwam was a little over four blocks west of the Tremont House, where Lake Street turned obliquely into Market Street—a "broken corner." Mr. Lincoln, still of the firm of Lincoln & Herndon, was at home in Springfield. It is usually understood that David Davis made voting arrangements with Simon Cameron, of Pennsylvania, but the candidate was not willing to be bound by contract—not if it cost the nomination, such was his astonishingly cautious, secretive policy. He approved Seward's idea of an "irrepressible conflict," but refused to indorse his "higher law"—that is, Seward was too radical. Thus, while it would have been the easy part of the demagogue to go out beyond Seward, Lincoln, at a moment when it was deemed fatal to him, took the stand that nominated him. He was considered a safer man—a little nearer the South—born in Kentucky—a Mississippi flatboatman—a rail splitter. The people, too, must fight; let them choose their leader, and so far as mere popularity seemed to go in Chicago, of course Lincoln overtopped all other candidates put together. Mr. Seward did not arrive with enough votes to nominate him, and when his political machinery broke down he had no remaining resource. Lincoln was chosen on the third ballot (May 18), and the whole West was wildly delighted; the elder East was gravely pleased to see its children so happy. Mr. Lincoln was not nationally known. At Springfield Lincoln was in the public square, tossing town ball. He took the message announcing his nomination, and said: "I guess I will tell a little woman down the street the news." The Republican platform was in these words: "That the new dogma, that the Constitution carries slavery into all the territories, is a dangerous political heresy, revolutionary in tendency, and subversive of the peace and harmony of the country." Lincoln himself had gone a little further: "That the spread of slavery

should be arrested, and it should be placed where the public mind shall rest in the belief of its ultimate extinction." The Abolitionists, forced to accept the sop offered in the platform, had joined the Republican party, and formed its extreme left, with Lincoln next to them, but no one knew how sternly he considered himself as yet not one of that extreme left. He saw the people were for Union; he knew that attitude meant eventually Abolition; so he saw no necessity of taking a stand out ahead of the people; if the Union could be saved with slave States and free territories and free new States, he was willing to save it that way. The Eastern people soon grew cool. Mr. Weed, who had so often defeated Henry Clay, desired to be visited, but Lincoln held aloof; when David Davis went East it was with a most slow consent on Lincoln's part. Lincoln did not like to act, and he was stubborn to lead. He was usually right in his apprehensions of future events. As soon as the Eastern men saw he was not worrying, they themselves bestirred. When they came to Springfield, making loud reproaches, but offering no good suggestions, he told them the story of the man who was traveling on horseback in a wild region, during a thunderstorm. "The peals of thunder," said Lincoln, "were frightful. One bolt, which seemed to crash the earth beneath him, brought him to his knees. Not being a praying man, his petition was short and to the point. He said: 'O Lord, if it is all the same to you, give us a little more light and a little less noise!'"

In those days three large States held their local elections in October, while the presidential election in those States was a special polling of the voters in November. When Pennsylvania, Ohio and Indiana went Republican at their State elections in October, 1860, it could be seen that Lincoln would win. Both Indiana and Pennsylvania had gone against the Republicans in 1856. Though he was encouraged, it is likely he knew the conspiracy of the Southern leaders began from that very day. Floyd, of Virginia, who had received

the Nullifiers' votes for President, years before, was Secretary of War, and immediately lent his department to the service of the plot.

From the moment Lincoln's candidacy assumed the importance of a probable election, his gloomy forebodings of personal ill increased. All but three of Springfield clergy opposed his election, and this gave him deep affliction, for he thought the profession of the ministry ought of itself to impel a minister to support the cause of freedom; and such exhibitions of political feeling shocked his innate respect for religion. In the North the campaign was between Lincoln and Douglas—the Rail-Splitter and the "Little Giant." In the South it was everywhere averred that Lincoln was not a human being at all—that he was an anthropoid ape. In the election on November 6, 1860, he received a plurality of nearly 600,000 votes, and, in the Electoral College, he had a majority over all as follows: Lincoln, 180; Breckenridge, 72; Bell, 39; Douglas, 12. Douglas carried but one State—Missouri. Lincoln carried seventeen entire States. Lincoln was constitutionally and popularly the President, having received very nearly as many votes as any two of the other three candidates.

After some persuasion, Mr. Lincoln, President-elect, invited Thurlow Weed to visit Springfield, and that celebrated "boss" of New York politics arrived, as was understood, in the interest of Mr. Seward. John Brown's expedition had suddenly precipitated the entire slavery question, and his execution was regarded not only as a martyrdom, but a challenge. It was seen in the East that all depended on "the unknown Rail-Splitter who had told stories." Letters poured in on Herndon, asking what manner of man this Lincoln was. December 21, 1860, Herndon wrote, summarizing eighteen years of knowledge of Lincoln: "Lincoln is a man of heart—aye, as gentle as a woman, and as tender—but he has a will strong as iron. He therefore loves all mankind, hates slavery and every form of despotism. Put these together—love for the

slave, and a determination, a will, that justice, strong and unyielding, shall be done when he has a right to act, and you can form your own conclusion. Lincoln will fail here, namely, if a question of political economy—if any question comes up which is doubtful, questionable, which no man can demonstrate, then his friends can rule him; but when on justice, right, liberty, the Government, the Constitution and the Union, then you may all stand aside. He will rule then, and no man can rule him—no set of men can do it. There is no fail here. This is Lincoln, and you mark my prediction."

Late in January, 1861, Mr. Lincoln wrote his inaugural address. He asked Herndon for Henry Clay's great speech of 1850, Andrew Jackson's proclamation against Nullification, and a copy of the Constitution. He locked himself in an empty room over a store, and, under those untoward circumstances, prepared a paper which is treasured among the noblest utterances of the Fathers of the Nation.

In the first week of February, 1861, he visited his aged stepmother at Farmington, and went to the grave of his father, Thomas Lincoln. He was deeply impressed with the idea that it would be his last opportunity to see the persons and things he loved. He was a prophet. The causes that led to his death were blind and slow in acting—he was a keen judge of cause and effect; he himself knew his value and power as an opponent to slavery. In the last weeks of his stay at Springfield nearly all his old friends of the settlements came in to bid him good-by—a touching testimony, which nerved him to the task before him, for now the Southern Confederacy was well under way. At last he stood on the car platform, at the little railroad station: "Friends," he said, "no one who has never been placed in a like position can understand my feelings at this hour, nor the oppressive sadness I feel at this parting. I go to assume a task more difficult than that which devolved upon Washington. Unless the great God who assisted him shall be with and

aid me, I must fail; but if the same omniscient mind and almighty arm that directed and protected him shall guide and support me, I shall not fail, I shall succeed." Lincoln had now become and remained a devout Deist. His burden had grown heavier than he could bear, and he appeared to have looked trustfully to Heaven for guidance. As battle after battle of our Civil War piled up in American history afterward, and the bloody business grew familiar alike to men of peace and war, this marked public religious attitude of the pilot of the ship of state was a never-failing source of satisfaction to the devout in the North. His route to Washington was planned to evoke patriotic feeling on the way. Allan Pinkerton, a detective, of Chicago, discovered a plot of assassination at Baltimore, and his tomb at Grace-land Cemetery, Chicago, commemorates his services to the Emancipator at this time as the chief of Pinkerton's works. The run into Washington from Harrisburg was secret. General Scott was ill in bed, but the veteran swore a round oath that Lincoln should be inaugurated, and took admirable military precautions. Among the Radicals of the North the bitterest contempt was felt for the outgoing President, Buchanan, whose easy submission to the insults of the South was considered as imperiling the nation. These sharp fault-finders asked Mr. Lincoln if he intended to ride to the capitol with Buchanan or to go alone. "That reminds me," said Lincoln, "of the witness in a lawsuit, who looked like a Quaker. When he arose to take the oath he was asked by the Judge (who seemed puzzled) if he would swear or affirm. 'I don't care a d—n which,' was the reply."

President Buchanan called at Willard's Hotel for Mr. Lincoln on the morning of March 4th, and a few minutes later Honest Old Abe was President, to the very general satisfaction of the North, because love for the man covered the land. At this time war was inevitable, but nobody in authority believed it would last ninety days. It was thought the South would fight a

little and recede from the dogma of slave-extension. The nation was still under the spell of slaveholding orators; the South claimed all the chivalry and respectability of the Union. In his inaugural the new President merely said the Government would not strike the first blow.

Premonitions of strife had no restrictive effect on the office-seekers, and the hordes of each State now beset the Chief Executive. A delegation asked the appointment of a man in delicate health to go to the balmy latitudes of the Sandwich Islands. "Gentlemen," said Mr. Lincoln, "I am sorry that there are eight other applicants for that place, and they are all sicker than your man!" The Austrian Minister presented an Austrian Count, who devoted much time to proving beyond peradventure that he was a person of noble lineage and high standing. Mr. Lincoln laid his hand on the office-seeker's shoulder, and said: "Never mind, you shall be treated with just as much consideration, for all that!" A crowd of office-seekers informed President Lincoln that he had been exposed to the smallpox. "I'm glad of it," said Lincoln, "for now I'm going to have something that I can give to everybody."

He began his War Administration with his accustomed modesty. When General McClellan was busy organizing the army, the President would sit in the General's ante-room, and the General would send out word that he was too busy to see anybody. Lincoln would go away, apparently satisfied. This is on the testimony of General Sickles. Such a condition of dependence lasted till after Bull Run. Robert L. Wilson, an old friend, was anxious for news, and Lincoln and Nicolay were coming from the War Department. "These war fellows are very strict with me," said Lincoln, "and I suppose I must obey them till I get the hang of things." "But can't you tell me whether the news is good or bad, Mr. President?" He grasped Wilson's arm like a vice, and whispered shrilly in his ear, "It's d—n bad!" And so it was, but it was necessary it should be bad in

order to stir the North and awaken Lincoln to the dangers that surrounded him from incapables. He had not yet appointed Stanton; and Grant, Sherman, Thomas, McPherson, Hancock, Meade, Sheridan were not yet on the scene.

The Great War settled on the land. Calls for troops—75,00 volunteers, then 300,000, again 300,000, again 300,000—came fast and faster. The dreaded draft struck alike the coward and the courageous, the Copperhead and the Abolitionist. The taxes doubled, tripled, quadrupled. Bonds sold down, down, down, in greenbacks; gold rose upward, to 290. Patriotism might make a feeble cry, but the voice of the substitute-broker was loud in the land. Gamblers, cormorants, contractors, fattened. For one thing the nation hungered—victory! And victory did not come. The summers of 1861, 1862, and till July 4, 1863, were seasons of the saddest and most humiliating history. The great man in the White House gradually shifted the entire load on his own shoulders, and at last the machine of war began to wreck havoc on the slaveholders.

John Hay, one of his two chief secretaries, describes the President: "He did not sleep well, but spent a good while in bed. He was extremely unmethodical. He would break through every regulation, as fast as it was made. Anything that kept the people themselves away from him he disapproved, although they nearly annoyed the life out of him by unreasonable complaints and requests. He wrote very few letters, and did not read one in fifty that he received." He sent Nicolay or Hay on long journeys rather than to write. "Sometimes, though rarely, he shut himself up and would see no one. He was very abstemious—ate less than any man I know. He drank nothing but water," not from principle however. A temperance committee told him the army was drinking so much whisky it was bringing the curse of the Lord on the North. He said the other side was drinking more and worse whisky. He did not read the news-

papers. "I know more about it than any of them," he said sadly. The kid-glove people never understood him, and could not learn. "I," said Hay, "consider Lincoln to be Republicanism incarnate—with all its faults and all its virtues. As, in spite of some rudeness, Republicanism is the sole hope of a sick world, so Lincoln, with all his foibles, is the greatest character since Christ."

He studied Calhoun, and set his great mind at work to overthrow Calhoun's logic. Of all public men, perhaps, Calhoun effected the deepest impression on him, because Calhoun made a fearless presentation of his facts. Mr. Lincoln particularly admired that sentence of Calhoun: "To legislate upon precedent is but to make the error of yesterday the law of to-day."

The Abolitionists set out, one way or another, to make him free the slaves, on John Quincy Adams' prescription that it could be done as a Presidential war measure. Generals Fremont and Hunter and Colonel Donn Piatt all felt his rough hand when they audaciously assumed the power of emancipation in their military districts. His own plan was State emancipation with compensation to owners. Horace Greeley, Wendell Phillips and all the great New Englanders thought he went far too slow. A committee of ministers from a General Assembly, certain that they came to him inspired of God—who had made that point very clear—were answered: "Well, gentlemen, it is not very often that one is favored with a delegation direct from the Almighty." James Gordon Bennett, with his New York Herald, was daily handicapping the Administration, and stood ready to edit a Lincoln organ, if the President would especially invite him to the White House. Mr. Lincoln said the doors were open to all. Neither godly nor diabolical contrivances could move Abraham Lincoln. "I can see that emancipation is coming. Whoever can wait for it will see it." Yet this man who could not be coaxed nor driven was the easiest-going and friendliest of men. Leonard Swett said, of his

marvelous skill in dealing with sentiment in Kentucky, Missouri and the border States generally: "He was a trimmer, and such a trimmer the world has never seen." Swett thought Lincoln had never asked for advice in his life. Anything he needed counsel about he would let others do. It was Swett's sentence regarding Lincoln: "He retained through life all the friends he ever had, and he made the wrath of his enemies to praise him." Not only did he require indomitable will to defer the emancipation proclamations until the majority of the soldiers and people wanted them, but he was the first strong supporter of Grant and Sherman against Halleck and Stanton, and as the people saw him always in accord with their views, they began to revere him. The soldiers told his stories on the battlefield. That keen desire to hear about the man himself, which has lasted until this day, took hold upon mankind, and, when some magnate would obtusely complain of Lincoln's methods and manners, such a critic was thereafter a well-marked character. What astonished men the most was that, while defeat sickened the President, and each battle left him looking older and still sadder, the kind manner never changed, nor did the stream of wit flow low. A notorious bully ordered an officer to flee. The officer arrested the bully, who struck with all his force at the officer, missing him. The officer, in return, struck the bully so hard with his fist that the senseless victim was taken to the hospital—it was said, to die. The officer ran to the White House for counsel and explanation. "I am sorry," said the President, "you had to kill the man, but these are times of war, and a great many men deserve killing. This man, according to your story, is one of them; so give yourself no uneasiness about the matter. I will stand by you." But the officer had sought Father Abraham for spiritual consolation. His conscience was stricken. Lincoln looked upon him again: "Well, go home now and get some sleep. But if you want some advice, hereafter when you strike

a man, don't hit him with your fist. Strike him with a club or a crowbar, or something that won't kill him!"

A man wanted a pass into Richmond. "Happy to oblige you if my passes were respected. The fact is, I have given passes to 250,000 men to go to Richmond, and as yet not one has reached the place." Fairfax was raided, and a brigadier-general and a number of horses were captured. "Well, I'm sorry on account of the horses. I can make a brigadier-general in five minutes, but it is not an easy matter to replace a hundred and ten horses." A troublesome visitor demanded exact statistics showing the number of Confederate soldiers in the field. "Twelve hundred thousand, according to the best authority." The questioner cried: "Good heavens!" "Yes, sir, twelve hundred thousand—no doubt of it. I have no reason to doubt our generals, and every time they are whipped they say the rebels outnumbered them from three or five to one. We have four hundred thousand men in the field, and three times four makes twelve. Do you see?" Alexander H. Stephens, Vice-President of the Confederacy, met the President outside of Richmond. He was a very small man in a large overcoat. Lincoln asked Grant if he had seen Stephens in his overcoat. Grant had. Had Grant seen Stephens take off the overcoat? Grant had also seen that. "Well, didn't you think it was the biggest shuck and the littlest ear you had ever seen?"

The nation touched the tender chord in their President's nature when they put the power of life and death in his hands. He said to Swett: "Get out of the way, Swett; to-morrow is butcher-day, and I must go through these papers and see if I cannot find some excuse to let these poor fellows off." Stanton believed in military capital punishment, and plenty of it. Stanton sent Holt, the chief military prosecutor, "to put a case strong," to Lincoln. Soldiers had run back from line of battle at Chancellorsville. They were now under sentence of death. "Holt, you acknowledge these men have

a previous record for bravery. They shall not be shot for this one offense." Holt knew Stanton would "explode with rage," so he made another argument for blood. "Holt, were you ever in battle?" "I have never been." "Did Stanton ever march in the first line, to be shot at by an enemy, like these men did?" "I think not, Mr. President." "Well, I tried it, in the Blackhawk War, and I remember, one time, I grew awful weak in the knees when I heard the bullets whistle around me, and saw the enemy in front of me. How my legs carried me forward, I cannot now tell, for I thought every minute that I would sink to the ground. Who knows but these men's legs refused to carry them? Send this dispatch, ordering them set free." And they were set free that day.

As "the war to free the negro" grew more perceptible in its logic, the complexities of draft-riots, Butternut and Copperhead Conventions, unlicensed newspaper invective, and sharp military criticism, seemed overwhelmingly numerous. The President delivered up Mason and Slidell to England; encouraged Juarez in Mexico; set down Valandigham of Ohio within the Confederate lines; moderated the tone of Seward's documents; made peace as often as war. Finally, when the time was sufficiently ripe, he issued the preliminary Proclamation of Emancipation. On September 22, 1862, he informed all regions in rebellion, naming them, and excepting certain counties, that their slaves would be free January 1, 1863, unless they ceased to defy the authority of the United States. It was not Abolition as a principle—it was emancipation in rebellious regions as a threat, and measure of war.

He called the members of the Cabinet, and, summarizing his thoughts and feelings, he told them this Proclamation and no other would be issued. Governor Seward (Secretary of State) suggested a slight change, which was adopted; a day or two later he suggested still another, which was likewise adopted. The President asked the Governor why he had not mentioned both

changes at once, but Governor Seward did not seem to give a satisfactory answer. "Seward," said Lincoln, "reminds me of a hired man who came to a farmer and told him one of a favorite yoke of oxen had fallen down dead. After a pause the hired man added: 'And the other ox in that team is dead, too.' 'Why didn't you tell me at once that both the oxen were dead?' 'Because I didn't want to hurt you by telling you too much at one time.'"

As soon as the responsible head of the Government was well under the burden which the original Abolitionists had first taken up, it seemed as if all parties turned to make that burden heavier. The South was hit hard, and it nerved itself "to deadlier and more ungenerous blows." There also formed parties of "Unconditional Union men" in the North, who claimed to be perturbed with fear of disunion. These patriots cheerfully invited the President to leave the war and come to address them at Springfield. The "letter to James S. Conkling" in reply to such an invitation is immortal and unanswerable, warning all men, for all time, to get out of the attitude of Tories, or fire-in-the-rear agitators under any name whatsoever. "You desire peace, and you blame me, that you do have it." The writer (Lincoln) names "three conceivable ways to attain peace." "First, to suppress the rebellion by force and arms. This I am trying to do. Are you for it? If you are, so far we are agreed. If you are not for it, a second way is, to give up the Union. I am against this. Are you for it? If you are, you should say so, plainly. If you are not for force, nor yet for dissolution, there only remains some imaginable compromise." The President gives his proofs that compromise is impossible. "No paper compromise to which the controllers of Lee's army are not agreed, can at all affect that army." No word of compromise from that army had ever reached the President. Should such an offer come, it should not be rejected, nor should it be kept secret. "But, to

be plain, you are dissatisfied with me about the negro. Quite likely, there is a difference of opinion between you and myself upon that subject. I certainly wish that all men could be free, while I suppose you do not." "I suggested compensated emancipation, to which you replied that you wished not to be taxed to buy negroes." He then argues the constitutionality of the Emancipation Proclamation. "Some of you profess to think a retraction of the Proclamation would operate favorably for the Union. Why better after the retraction, than before the issue? There was more than a year and a half of trial to suppress the rebellion before the Proclamation issued, the last one hundred days of which passed under an explicit notice that it was coming, unless averted by those in revolt, returning to their allegiance. The war has certainly progressed as favorably for us since the issue of the Proclamation as before." The President next shows that his military men are pleased with the military effects of the Proclamation. "You say that you will not fight to free negroes. Some of them seem willing to fight to free you. But, no matter. Fight you, then, exclusively, to save the Union. I issued the Proclamation on purpose to aid you in saving the Union. Whenever you shall have conquered all resistance to the Union, if I shall urge you to continue fighting, it will be an apt time then for you to declare you will not fight to free negroes. I thought that, in your struggle for the Union, to whatever extent the negroes should cease helping the enemy, to that extent it weakened the enemy in his resistance to you. Do you think differently? I thought that whatever negroes can be got to do as soldiers, leaves just so much less for white soldiers to do in saving the Union. Does it appear otherwise to you?"

At this point in Father Abraham's greatest letter he begins to be eloquent, and we quote the closing pages in full: "The signs look better. The Father of Waters again goes unvexed to sea. Thanks to the great Northwest for it;

nor yet wholly to them. Three hundred miles up they met New England, Keystone and Jersey, hewing their way right and left. The Sunny South, too, in more colors than one, also lent a hand. On the spot, their part of the history was jotted down in black and white. The job was a great National one; and let none be barred who bore an honorable part in it. And while those who have cleared the great river may well be proud, even that is not all. It is hard to say that anything has been more bravely and well done than at Antietam, Murfreesboro, Gettysburg, and on so many fields of lesser note. Nor must Uncle Sam's web feet be forgotten. At all the watery margins they have been present. Not only on the deep sea, the broad bay, and the rapid river, but also up the narrow, muddy bayou, and wherever the ground was a little damp, they have been, and made their tracks, thanks to all. For the great Republic—for the principle it lives by and keeps alive—for man's vast future—thanks to all.

"Peace does not appear so distant as it did. I hope it will come soon and come to stay, and so come as to be worth the keeping for all future time. It will then have been proved that, among free men, there can be no successful appeal from the ballot to the bullet; and that they who take such appeal are soon to lose their case and pay the cost. And then there will be some black men who can remember that, with silent tongue, clenched teeth, and well-poised bayonet, they have helped mankind on to this great consummation; while I fear there will be some white ones, unable to forget that, with malignant heart and deceitful speech, they strove to hinder it."

When Mr. Lincoln next stood on the east steps of the Capitol, he had been endorsed by an overwhelming majority of the North. He had Grant at Richmond; he had Sherman ranging up and down the Confederacy, their cities flaming behind. He had Memphis, Natchez, New Orleans, Mobile, Savannah, and the realm of Slavery was cut in twain. Father Abraham

now wore a beard, and looked twenty years older than when he left Springfield. Peace was coming with victory. It was then that he grew even more gentle. It was then that he said: "With malice toward none; with charity for all"—those magical words that seemed to leap with poetry out of the example of his life of sorrows, an inimitable inscription over his catafalque anon, and a precious legacy to the language that he spoke.

In spirit he had not really changed. All other things seemed unstable, but Father Abraham was the same—far better understood now, even by the people who had always believed in him. A widow, whose husband had fallen in battle, implored that one of her three soldier-sons might come home to support her. "Certainly," said Father Abraham, "if you have given up all, and your prop has been taken away, you are justly entitled to one of your boys." But the soldier whom Lincoln had thus discharged was killed in battle before the order could reach him. Again the afflicted mother and widow came to Lincoln, whose face was very grave as he wrote another discharge. "Now," he said, "you have one, and I have one of the two boys left; that is no more than right." These mothers in Israel never failed to assure Abraham Lincoln that the next time they should meet him, would be in Heaven, and it gladdened his heart to know they felt so.

He was like Shakespeare, in that light and shade, pathos and humor, played across his nature as light winds on summer seas. He stood with Grant at Petersburg where Smith's colored troops had glorified their race. "I want to take a look at those boys," said the President. "I read with greatest delight how gallantly they behaved. Dana said they took six out of the sixteen guns captured that day. I was opposed on nearly every side when I first favored the raising of colored regiments, but they have proven their efficiency. When we wanted every able-bodied man who could be spared to go to the front, and my operators kept objecting

to the negroes, I used to tell them that at such times it was just as well to be a little color-blind. I think, General, we can say of the black boys what a country fellow, who was an old-time Abolitionist in Illinois, said when he went to a theater in Chicago and saw Forrest playing 'Othello.' He was not very well up in Shakespeare, and didn't know that the tragedian was a white man who had blacked up for the purpose. After the play was over, the folks who had invited him to go to the show wanted to know what he thought of the actors, and he said: 'Waal, layin' aside all sectional prejudices and any partiality I may have for the race, derned if I don't think the nigger held his own with any on 'em.' " A Tennessee wife implored the release of her husband, a rebel prisoner, on the ground that he was a religious man. "Tell him when you meet him," said the President, "that I say I'm not much of a judge of religion, but that in my opinion the religion which sets men to rebel and fight against their Government because, as they think, that Government does not sufficiently help some men to eat their bread in the sweat of other men's faces, is not the sort of religion upon which people can get to Heaven."

As he entered Richmond, the picture of the freed slaves gathering about him and hailing him with sharp cries as their deliverer, would have convinced anybody that freedom is a precious thing in the opinion of those who have been denied it.

It seemed, in April, 1865, that the real troubles were passed. A dozen armies had been raised, \$3,000,000,000 had been borrowed, battles, prison-camps, cemeteries, rendezvous, navy yards, military governments, politics, draft, conspiracies—all, all, had gone by, and Slavery was blotted out; its champions were prisoners of war, its arch-prophets fugitives and exiles. On what a home-returning night Abraham Lincoln look—he who never forgot a face. In 1840, he had taken dinner with a Sangamon county farmer. Now, this "embattled farmer" shook

hands with the triumphant President. "Yes," said Lincoln, "I remember you. You used to live on the Danville road. I took dinner with you when I was running for the Legislature. I recollect that we stood talking together out at the barn-yard gate while I sharpened my jack-knife." "Ya-as," drawled the old soldier, "you did. But say, wherever did ye put that whetstone? I looked for it a dozen times, but I never *could* find it after the day you used it. We 'lowed as how mebby you took it along with ye." "No," said Lincoln; "no, I put it on top of that gate-post—that high one." "Well, mebby you *did*, now. Couldn't nobody else have put it up there, and none of us ever thought to look up there for it." The soldier was soon after at home. He wrote at once to his friend Abe Lincoln, that he had found the whetstone on top of the tall post, where it had lain untouched for fifteen years, and he did not think it would ever be lost again.

About the 7th and 8th of April, the towns of the North were alive with music and bright at night with bonfires. "Swamp Angels," Fantastic Companies," fire brigades, and all the mechanism of festive joy were in movement. The Nation was one; Father Abraham had supported Grant and Sherman in the dark hours; he had been mountain-like among the molehills. Even in the highest moments of jubilation, the thought of the Greatheart at the White House would come upon the people, and some latest tale would be told, in imitation of his unrivaled art. Early on a crisp Saturday morning, about a week later, there was placarded at the railroad stations, in the post-offices, at the taverns, the incredible intelligence that Abraham Lincoln had been assassinated and was dying.

As when the perverse shaft of lightning thwarts an inky sky, and shivering nature bids the cheek to blanch, so came that bolt of destiny upon the people. They had been schooled in blood; the ghastly deeds of war were come to be familiar. But that Father Abraham was no more!—that an assassin, instead of bearing away the aid and con-

solation of Father Abraham, had slain him!—it surpassed even the infernal realities of war. There settled over the land a period of such gloom as history does not record of other epochs and ages. On the Sunday following, on the Wednesday following, through the slow weeks thereafter, men heard the passionate sobbings of their eloquent of speech, and truly were broken-hearted in the general woe. It was like the Last Day is painted. It seemed the air was thick and sulphurous. Men were too sick with sorrow to call for vengeance, or pronounce the name of the wretched man who had betrayed his race. It was truly an awful crime against Charity, Mercy, Peace—all the sweet angels!

It was nearly 10 o'clock before the peculiar name of Booth was written on the bulletins. Lincoln was no more. Particulars came at noon, with the trains from the large cities. The little theater, with its alley behind and beside it, like a carpenter's square, was as well fixed on the mind that baleful day as it was in after years when it fell upon its inmates on an anniversary day, and closed the darkest chapter in our chronicles. We could see the stage-hand holding the saddled horse; we could see the insane actor, the crushed tragedian, vaulting on the horse, pushing to the corner of the alley, and rattling at right-angles to the left, up the rest of the alley, past the startled negro's window, out beside the theater-front, up the hilly street, over and out of sight, but with loud clattering hoofs upon the cobblestones.

Mr. Lincoln, Mrs. Lincoln, Major Rathbone, and a young lady had entered the double box at the right, at 9.20 P. M. Mr. Lincoln had sat at the left in the wide space, drawing the curtain so the audience could not see him after he bowed to it. Booth entered the theater at 10 o'clock, made his way directly to the box, shot the President from the rear, leaped over the box-railing to the stage, caught his spur in the flag that decorated the box beneath, hurt his ankle badly, rose, stalked across the stage, with a knife

in hand, crying "Sic semper tyrannis!—The South is avenged!" met Withers, the orchestra leader, stabbed him slightly in the neck, and escaped out the door into the alley, where the fellow-conspirator held the horse.

A night-clerk from the hotel opposite ran in with an army officer, and the insensible form of the President was borne to the Petersen residence, across the street, which shows the tablet commemorating the event. In the theater, when men realized that the first American President had been assassinated, they themselves became like insane men, crying for wild havoc. About the dying form of the martyr the chief men of the Nation gathered, and saw him breathe his last at 7.22 A. M., April 15, 1865. Business ceased throughout the land until after Wednesday. Bells tolled more generally than they have ever tolled since. A singular and significant literary fact is the paucity of early record concerning the assassin. It was only of later years, with new generations, that the "sacred terror" passed away, and full particulars of the night at Ford's Theater, with every survivor's narrative and Booth's career, were given to the world, or sheltered in our libraries.

The body was taken from Mr. Petersen's home to the White House, where it was embalmed, and funeral services were held. Then it lay in state in the rotunda of the Capitol. On Wednesday the Nation fasted in prayer. On Friday the funeral train advanced through Baltimore, Harrisburg, Philadelphia, to New York. "And now," said Henry Ward Beecher, "the martyr is moving in triumphal march, mightier than when alive. The Nation rises up at every stage of his coming. Cities and States are his pall-bearers, and the cannon speaks the hours with solemn progression." The scene in New York was unparalleled. The white letters of Charity for all, of Malice toward none, glittered entrancingly on the eye. Millions wept, and repudiated as inhuman the deed which one of their race had done. The stately cortege passed on to Albany,

Buffalo, Cleveland, Columbus, Indianapolis, and Chicago. At Chicago the catafalque was erected in the rotunda of the Court House, while the deep bell overhead pulsed the moments. The stream of weeping human beings never dwindled, nor were all the mourners able to see their dead.

On the 3d of May the catafalque was placed in the State House at Springfield, to which came forth the ancient sons of Illinois, cabin-builders, rail-splitters, crippled soldiers, fellow-citizens, fellow-pioneers—those who had admired Abraham Lincoln the longest, who had, to the extent of their feeble might, lightened his herculean burden, and gained no sordid end in his mighty elevation. All day and night this inner circle also came and looked on their own hero of their own kind. At 10 o'clock on the morning of the second day a great choir of voices sang "Peace, Troubled Soul!" while the lid of the casket was closed to the eyes of the world. The military cortege removed, the Bishop spoke his words of faith and renunciation, the vault-door opened, the choir chanted "Unveil thy bosom, faithful tomb!" and the body of Abraham Lincoln was at rest, beyond the hurts of life.

WILLIAM H. SEWARD

1801-1872

ANTI-SLAVERY CHAMPION

A year before the Civil War, William H. Seward was the most distinguished American Statesman who opposed the extension of Slavery and lamented the authorization of "the peculiar institution" in our organic law. Of all the living public men, he had longest been the most radical. For many years, as the representative of but a comparatively small group of thinkers, and in the presence of Clay, Webster, and Calhoun, he made but a sorry impression on National affairs; yet he fought the good fight and kept the faith. It seemed to the adherents at large of the new coalition called the

National Republicans, that injustice was done to him when first Fremont and then Lincoln was made the standard-bearer of the new party, rather than to entrust its leadership to the man who for ten years, beginning with the rebukes of Calhoun, had sustained all the insults that Fremont received from Slavery at the hands of Jefferson Davis, Henry A. Wise, Toombs, Stephens, and the rest of the slaveholding Secessionists.

Time proved that Mr. Seward, even as late as 1860, was far ahead of his age. The slower Lincoln, peace-loving by nature, was required to curb the impetuous Seward, who might have had us at war not only with ourselves, but with half the rest of the world beside.

Mr. Seward was defeated at Chicago, in 1860, when Lincoln was nominated for President, mainly because of the complexities of New York politics.

William Henry Seward was born nearly eight years earlier than Lincoln, in Florida, Orange county, N. Y., on May 16, 1801, and was the fourth of six children. His father, a physician, had three slaves who were domestic servants. He was sent to Union College, Schenectady, and, because his father would not dress him as fashionably as the other students were clothed, he ran away to Savannah, Ga., where he obtained a teacher's position in a new academy. The father secured the return of his son by writing an irate letter to the trustees, and William studied law six months at Goshen, N. Y. He then was permitted to join the senior class at Union College, and graduated in 1820 with honor. He was admitted to the bar in 1822, and was taken into partnership by Elijah Miller, of Auburn, N. Y., whose daughter Frances he married, October 20, 1824. William H. Seward was not, up to this time, a favorite with his father.

He was, nevertheless, a fearless young man in politics, and lost an office on principle as early as 1828. Governor Clinton had appointed him Surrogate of Cayuga county, and he went to Albany. There he attended a John

Quincy Adams meeting; Clinton had declared for Jackson; so Seward's appointment was rejected by the State Senate. The Jeffersonian Democrats had split into Bucktails (Tammany) and Clintonians. Seward's father had been a Jeffersonian; Seward gradually veered about to Clinton, high tariff, and Erie Canal, and became friendly with Thurlow Weed, who was so often to dim the political hopes of Henry Clay. Seward was elected State Senator on this ticket in 1830. He was twenty-nine, small and slender, with blue eyes, light sandy hair, a smooth face, and a youthful air. He seemed like a boy among the elderly men who sat in the Senate, a body which, at that time, was also the court of last resort, like the English House of Lords. Seward gave much attention to the judicial work of the Senate.

In 1833, Dr. Seward, the father, invited William H. Seward, the son, to accompany him to Europe. They visited Lafayette at La Grange. When the Whig party formed in 1834, Seward ran for Governor, a hopeless race, which, however, made him a future leader. For four years he was a land agent or attorney in Chautauqua County. In 1838, the Whigs again nominated him for Governor, and he was triumphantly elected. But the Legislature was in the hands of the Democrats. During his administration a clash between Canada and New York State (the wreck of the steamer *Caroline* and the McLeod arrest) resulted in diplomatic complications between England and America. Governor Seward did not think Secretary of State Webster treated him with courtesy. His term expired in January, 1843. He ever after popularly bore the title of "Governor."

In 1844 he spoke for Clay and against Texas, receiving many marks of honor from the anti-Slavery voters. At Boston he first met Abraham Lincoln. The twain agreed that Slavery was the real question of the future. Governor Seward made it the keynote of all his speeches. The success of his labors was rewarded in New York in

February, 1849, by his election to the United States Senate. He arrived at Washington as the curtain was falling on Clay, Webster, and Calhoun, just in time to behold that last and greatest act of compromise that made the dying Clay's name immortal. For Seward it was an untoward entry. But Governor Seward supported Lincoln cheerfully, and was offered and accepted the State Department. It was probably thought by Mr. Weed that Governor Seward could control Lincoln, and at Lincoln's prompt repudiation of this idea, Seward declined to serve, but was induced to withdraw his refusal. Governor Seward, naturally a gentle and cultured man, was by no means insincere in his feelings of personal degradation when he heard that Mr. Lincoln said in public, that he had shown "Seward shouldn't take the first trick, and if the Cabinet slate were to be broken anywhere, it would be at the top."

As Secretary of State, Governor Seward found ambassadors from the Confederate States of America on his very threshold. With these audacious persons he was soon entangled in a controversy concerning Fort Sumter. The President was not only determined to let events drift, but he was not a rapid man of business. He sometimes appeared to get behind with the work that he really intended to do. Governor Seward was soon demanding "a policy," and it is not likely that the two men ever cordially admired or trusted each other.

Governor Seward, as Secretary of State, dealt, while his hands were tied by a civil war, with a haughty and unfriendly government in Great Britain, whose sympathies were with Slavery. The St. Alban, Vt., raid, and the move on Mexico by France and England, were tantalizing acts, to harry us into war while we were weak and divided. Mr. Gladstone was eloquently against us. Mr. Bright was our firm well-

wisher. Governor Seward was forced to look as far as Russia for a powerful friend, and, with great astuteness, he bid for the favor of that Empire by the purchase of Alaska.

April 5, 1865, Governor Seward was thrown from his carriage, and was so badly injured that for a time his life was despaired of. His right shoulder was dislocated, and his jaw broken on both sides. Nine days later, while Booth was assassinating President Lincoln in Ford's Theater, an unknown man (Payne) burst into Governor Seward's chamber, and with a bowie-knife stabbed the sick man in the face and throat. The wife, aroused by the screams of her daughter, was so horrified by what she saw that she became violently ill, and died June 21. The daughter, also a victim of the shock, caused by seeing the bloody affray, fell ill, and survived only a year. By the aid of mechanical contrivances holding his face aright, the shattered man was able to leave his bed within a few months, and he was sometimes carried in a chair to the State Department. He was cruelly maimed, and piteously desolate.

March 4, 1869, Governor Seward very gladly laid down an office which the arrogations of Congress had made extremely burdensome, and attempted to divert his mind by travel. He visited his purchase of Alaska, went down the coast to Mexico, crossed the Isthmian lands, and returned to New York by way of the West Indies. He then made his celebrated journey around the world. He everywhere evoked expressions of the highest respect.

After his return he passed the remainder of his days either at his homestead in Auburn, or in a cottage on the banks of Owasco Lake. His strength failed gradually, but his mind remained clear and his temper tranquil. He was at work on his notes of travel on the very morning of his death, October 10, 1872.

SALMON P. CHASE

1808-1873

FATHER OF THE GREENBACK

Salmon Portland Chase, Father of the American Greenback, and first Anti-Slavery Chief Justice of the United States, was born in Cornish, N. H., January 13, 1808. His name, Salmon Portland, was given to him to commemorate the death of his uncle Salmon at Portland. He was wont to say that he was his uncle's monument. He wrote that his earliest recollection of himself was of a dangerous attack of fever. He was a bright little child at school, and possessed a copy of "Rollin's Ancient History" (now out of vogue), which he treasured as a thing of priceless value. When he was eight years old his father removed the family to Keene, where he died in 1817. Salmon went to Latin school three years at Keene. Then his uncle, the Episcopal Bishop of Ohio, took him West to Worthington, O., where he again attended school, learning Greek, and worked on a farm. It was the intention of the Bishop to educate his nephew for the priesthood, and the lad bowed devoutly to that wish, receiving confirmation with deep conviction and awe. In 1822 the Bishop took the Presidency of the Cincinnati College, which closed in a year, and Salmon was sent back to his mother. He studied more at Royalton, Vt., and then entered the junior class at Dartmouth College. In the winters he taught school and "boarded round." He graduated with honor in 1826, and began the study of law in the office of William Wirt, at Washington, D. C., teaching school six hours a day in a private seminary in order to defray his expenses. He was anti-Jackson and anti-Slavery in principle, and, being naturally a censorious young man, narrowly restricted with conventions and forms, he was shocked by the levity of Congress, whose sessions he first attended in 1828. He especially abominated John Randolph; his idol was William

Wirt. He was enabled to pass a legal examination through the kind heartedness of Justice Cranch, because the young man intended to begin practice in Cincinnati.

He was married three times: First, March 4, 1834, to Kathrine J. Garniss, who died December 1, 1835; their one child died. Second, September 26, 1839, to Eliza A. Smith, who died September 29, 1845; the eldest of their three children became the celebrated and beautiful Kate Chase Sprague; the two other children died. Third, November 6, 1846, to Sarah B. D. Ludlow, who died in 1852; they had two children, one of whom died. The other became the wife of W. S. Hoyt, of New York City. Thus only two daughters survived him, and he outlived all three of his wives. His married life lasted only thirteen years. In the entire Chase family no sons were left.

At Cincinnati he undertook the compilation of "Chase's Statutes of Ohio," a work which tried the solidity of his intellect and at once introduced him to the attention of all the judiciary. Few young men have attempted so much, or performed a similar task so successfully. In a word, he gathered the laws of Ohio out of several hundred volumes, and reduced by a thousand-fold the labors of all counselors and advocates in the new State. In 1832 he voted for his patron, William Wirt, for President.

James G. Birney, a reformed slaveholder, published an Abolition paper, *The Philanthropist*, at Cincinnati. In 1836 his printing office was gutted, and the mob then made an attack on the homes of colored persons. The Mayor sympathized with the mob. Seeing this mob aroused the anti-slavery feelings of Mr. Chase. Shortly afterward, he defended the escaped slave Matilda, and carried an action growing out of her case to the Supreme Court of Ohio, which dodged the main question, but decided in favor of the appellant (Birney) on a technicality, which Mr. Chase would not deign to note in his plea. The Birney mob caused Mr. Chase to lay down extreme doctrine

touching the freedom of the press, for which he would not recede in war times, when Story's newspaper at Chicago was suppressed by General Burnside (until Mr. Lincoln reversed the order). As soon as Tyler became President, Mr. Chase publicly advocated the formation of a new party, with a platform (1) That Slavery must stay in its own States; (2) That Slavery must not dominate in federal affairs, and must there be overthrown.

Although he had not voted for his client, Birney, for President, in 1840, Mr. Chase called a State Convention at Columbus in December, 1841, and there formed the Liberty party. In this convention he was the most influential member, wrote the address, and suggested the State ticket. In 1843 the Liberty party at Buffalo again nominated Birney for President, Mr. Chase writing the platform. In June, 1845, Mr. Chase and others called a convention at Cincinnati of 2,000 delegates in the interest of the Liberty party. Mr. Chase wrote the Address.

Although he attended the Liberty Convention of 1847, which nominated John P. Hale, Mr. Chase was looking on every side for broader political action, with more power. He called a Convention at Columbus in June, and this called a Free-Soil Convention later at Buffalo, where he presided. Ex-President Van Buren was nominated for President, and the Barn-Burners joined. This combination of Abolitionists with anti-Slavery men polled a vote of 291,263, when Taylor and Fillmore were elected.

So great was the success of his political movements in Ohio that he was able to control the Legislature, which by a very narrow vote elected him to the United States Senate as an Independent Democrat or Free-Soiler.

July 13, 1855, the ex-Senator was nominated for Governor of Ohio by a union of stray Whigs, Free-Soil Democrats, and Know-Nothings, called as a whole, Republicans. Chase was elected, and a solid Republican State party at once came into form and organization, to hold power for twenty

years. Governor Chase's administration was noted for the slave-hunts that were prosecuted by Southerners in Ohio, and the energy with which he strove to defend the small remaining rights of his State. He raised and equipped 15,000 State troops, with artillery, and had at hand a respectable anti-slavery army, while not a man in uniform had been seen in Ohio before the new Governor was elected. This force made Buchanan respect Ohio's court decisions against the slave hunters. Chase was reelected Governor for 1858-9. He went into Illinois to aid Lincoln's canvass. When John Brown, of Ossawatimie, set the ball of civil war rolling, Governor Chase wrote to his Legislature: "While we will not disavow just admiration of noble qualities by whomsoever displayed, we must not the less, but rather the more earnestly, condemn all inroads into States," etc. On this feeling he was re-elected to the United States Senate. John Brown had appealed to the Higher Law." Already, the solemn chant of freemen over his fate was setting up. His soul was marching on.

Ohio went to Chicago in 1860 with a solid delegation for Governor Chase. Some of Chase's votes nominated Lincoln. Chase could have nominated Seward. He had his choice, and Lincoln forgot the debt, despite the feeling often displayed by the Ohioan. Governor Chase made a protracted canvass for Lincoln in 1860. January 3, 1861, he arrived at a hotel in Springfield, where Lincoln called on him, and offered him the Treasury Department, which seemed a subordinate place, so strongly did old traditions cling to the office of foreign affairs. Governor Chase finally accepted the portfolio of finance only because Governor Seward himself was to be Secretary of State; and, again, and in fact, because Mr. Lincoln did not feel bound to respect the expressed distinction of Governor Chase to resign an independent position as Senator, which he liked, in order to accept a place which linked him to the fortunes of a political rival. National events, however, were so harassing that

he had not time to consult personal interests. He therefore took the Treasury, and in doing this he unwittingly paved the way to his subsequent elevation to the Chief Justiceship.

His labors as Secretary of the Treasury were prodigious. But the great work of his life, and one of the greatest acts of any man, was the successful issue of \$450,000,000 of greenbacks; which created cash without borrowing; which furnished a currency of equal value throughout the Nation. To make the greenbacks acceptable, he established the National Banking system, which was reenacted in 1882. He organized four new bureaus—Internal Revenue, Currency, Printing of Currency, and Inter-State Commerce.

Secretary Chase did not like to see Lincoln's ward-workers appointed to office. There was a sharp touch of John Quincy Adams in him—what was afterward called "mugwumpery." When Lincoln would please two Senators at the expense of one Secretary, the Secretary would resign. In fact, in political parlance, Salmon P. Chase clubbed Abraham Lincoln with his resignation from March 5, 1861, until it was accepted, June 29, 1864.

The President did not permit the fallen Secretary to depart from Washington without sending Mr. Hooper to him with the comforting assurance that the Chief Justiceship awaited him after election, and this news, coming to Governor Chase, sent him into the Presidential canvass with a will. On December 6, Mr. Lincoln sent the following short but momentous message to the Senate:

"EXECUTIVE MANSION, WASHINGTON, Dec. 6, 1864.

"To the Senate of the United States:

"I nominate Salmon P. Chase, of Ohio, to be Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, vice Roger B. Taney, deceased.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN."

This is one of the few times that Mr. Lincoln's name will be found spelled in full in his own signature.

Chief Justice Chase was a very large, tall, near-sighted man. He attracted unusual attention in any gathering of men, and was a highly-impressive person, without speaking. After acquaintance, he strengthened the earlier impressions in his auditors. Hard work began to tell on him in 1869, and he lost flesh so rapidly that he took alarm. In the spring of 1870, he went for the summer to Minnesota, where he stayed out-doors nearly all the time. On his way back, in the autumn, traveling in New York State, on a Pullman car, he was stricken with paralysis through his entire right side. His hair turned white, and the impressive statesman and jurist fell in majestic ruin, to the sorrow of his admirers. In June, 1871, he visited the St. Louis Springs in Michigan, and spent two months at Waukesha, Wis. He recovered so far as to resume his work on the Supreme Bench, but again manifestly over-taxed himself. He left the court late in April, 1873, on its adjournment, and visited his daughter, Mrs. Hoyt, in New York City. There, on May 6, he suffered a second and fatal stroke of paralysis, lingering alive till May 7th at 10 A. M.

CHARLES SUMNER.

1811-1874

THE SCHOLAR IN POLITICS.

He was born with a twin sister at Boston, January 6, 1811. His father was Sheriff of Boston (Suffolk) for fourteen years, and was enabled to send Charles, his oldest son, to Harvard College. The son graduated, and studied at home for a year. While he was ardent in the pursuit of knowledge, and neglected all youthful games in order to maintain his studies, he was not a brilliant scholar. Yet he was a person of great "approbativeness," and had a deep sense of the obligations that education and training imposed on him as a member of society. He soon entered the Dane Law School at Cambridge, where he studied under Justice Story and Professors Ashmun and

Greenleaf, and was librarian of the law library. He graduated in 1833 and entered the law office of Benjamin Rand, in Boston. "Of all men I ever knew at his age," says Mr. Story, "he was the least susceptible to the charms of women. Men he liked best, and with them he preferred to talk." This devotion to learning, and indifference to one-half of humanity, undoubtedly had its ill effects upon the usefulness of the great Senator.

In the winter of 1834 he went to Washington, D. C., to study legal procedure in the Supreme Court. He rode on a railroad train and was delighted with the experience. Between Baltimore and Washington he saw slaves for the first time. "My worst preconception of their appearance and ignorance did not fall as low as their actual stupidity." Nor did he ever overcome his natural aversion for the black man as an actual brother. In 1836 he became an associate editor of the *American Jurist*. He already read Garrison's *Liberator*, and was inclined to attack slavery, tooth and nail.

Charles Sumner, as a young man, was very tall and thin, and a rapid walker. He had a thick "head of hair." He was so full of "eagerness, energy, enthusiasm," that everybody noticed it. He was extremely well liked by elderly men. He had now, in his own language, "fallen in love with Europa." He must travel and study abroad. He therefore settled in Paris, and learned to talk French.

In England he was received as the best specimen of Young America so far seen. His impressions of Europe strengthened his democratic principles.

He went to Rome, and evened up all that he had learned about it at Harvard. This gave him extreme delight. He mastered the Italian language and studied a good share of its literature, working many hours a day. He then traveled for five months in Germany. He studied German in Heidelberg. He arrived in New York in May, 1840, 29 years old.

July 4, 1845, he was orator of the day at Boston. John Quincy Adams

was making his anti-Slavery fight all alone in the House of Representatives, and aroused the admiration of Sumner, who wrote many articles for the newspapers. When Massachusetts attempted to protect her free colored seamen against the indignities of the laws in South Carolina and Louisiana, he was a prominent contributor to the argument of the day on that question, and always on the side of the slave. In November of that year, he made his first political speech at a meeting in Faneuil Hall, to protest against the admission of Texas as a slave State. That night he declared the equality and brotherhood of all men. In September, 1846, in Faneuil Hall, he outlined the anti-Slavery duties of the Whig party. In June, 1848, Sumner formally left the Whig party and became a Free Soiler. In August, 1848, he presided at the Faneuil Hall ratification of Van Buren's nomination for President, at Buffalo. In fusion of Free Soilers and Democrats, Sumner was elected to the United States Senate by a majority of one vote, on the twenty-sixth ballot, April 24, 1851, and thus practically entered politics at the ripe age of forty. On August 26, 1852, Sumner escaped from the toils laid about him by parliamentary intrigue, and made a speech in the Senate against the Fugitive Slave law. He wanted Slavery abolished.

On May 19 and 20, 1856, Sumner delivered the speech entitled "The Crime against Kansas," which led to the principal event in his career. The address was usually called "an unparalleled philippic against Slavery."

After a short session of the Senate, on the 22d, Mr. Sumner sat writing at his little desk in the Senate, in a posture that made it impossible for him to rise suddenly, when a strange man appeared before him, stick in hand, and began beating him over the head. Sumner's hair was thick, but the blows cut open his scalp. In his endeavor to rise out of the trap in which he found himself, he wrenched the little desk from its fastenings to the floor, and then fell unconscious, while the assailant still

continued to beat the prostrate form. Two fellow-ruffians, Congressmen Keitt and Edmundson, prevented Simonton, a reporter, from going to the rescue.

The ruffian was Congressman Preston S. Brooks, known in history as "Bully Brooks." The Senate formally complained of this act to the House. Brooks resigned, and Keitt was censured. Brooks was fined \$300 in the criminal courts of the District. He became a hero in the South, and his "knock-down argument" was recommended for all "Northern fanatics."

Within eight months Brooks, the ruffian, died a dreadful death from membranous croup.

The history of Sumner's sufferings is almost as long as the chronicle of his education. Beside his wounds, there was "a grave and formidable lesion of the brain and spinal cord." When, months afterward, he was able to travel to Boston, he was received with extraordinary honors. He was re-elected Senator without opposition, although it was not certain he could serve, and sailed for Paris, where he was seven times treated by the moxa, at the hands of Dr. Brown-Sequard, who pronounced it "the greatest suffering that could be inflicted on mortal man." In December, 1859, he returned to his seat in the Senate, which had remained empty all the time intervening. If he had been a fanatic before, the planters might well abhor him now, and he was not so weakly supported as when Douglas was the chief cup-bearer of the Southern oligarchy. June 4, 1860, he delivered his celebrated speech on "The Barbarism of Slavery," which was a far more effective and pitiless tirade against Slavery than the address that had maddened Brooks and his fellow-assailants. Mr. Sumner's greatest work was done when he sank unconscious under the blows of Bully Brooks, in 1856. He busied himself with arranging the United States statutes to meet the progress of the war, wherever the black race was involved, and made the country pay black soldiers as much as white ones. Mr. Sumner secured to

negroes the right to ride on street cars in Washington.

Mr. Sumner's celebrated theory of State suicide, while it was not acknowledged, was nevertheless the basis of Reconstruction. According to this theory, a State on failing to secede, relapsed into a territorial condition, the same as any region that had never enjoyed Statehood. The dominant party of the North learned that it was necessary to realize this theory in order to perpetuate the ordinances growing out of the war.

Many of the Abolitionists who were out of Congress found life heavy on their hands after the constitutional amendments of 1865, 1866 and 1869; but there remained much legislative work for Sumner to do in the way of securing civil rights for his wards of the black race. When General Grant attempted to annex San Domingo, Sumner joined with Schurz in the extraordinary Senatorial philippics that were hurled at their "Cæsar." This attitude put him in the inglorious wing of the Republican party, which split away and nominated Greeley against Grant. An unhappy marriage late in life contributed to increase the disappointments of the celebrated Abolitionist. The Legislature of Massachusetts censured him for a bill he had presented in the Senate to remove the names of victories on Northern battle-flags, in order to sooner heal the wounds of war.

In 1872 the health of the lonely man began to fail, and declined through the years 1873 and 1874. While he was very ill, a committee came from Massachusetts, to notify him that the resolution of censure had been annulled and expunged. Almost his last words were: "Take care of my Civil Rights bill." He died at his home in Washington, without descendants or attendant relatives, March 11, 1874.

ROBERT E. LEE.

1807-1870

Robert Edward Lee (1807-1870), general of the Confederate States army,



ROBERT E. LEE

and one of the greatest of modern commanders, was born at Stratford, in Westmoreland County, Virginia, on January 19, 1807. His father was General Harry Lee, better known in the War of Independence as "Light-Horse Harry Lee," and afterwards governor of Virginia.

Robert Lee entered the Military Academy at West Point in 1825, and graduated in 1829, when he received a commission in the corps of engineers. When the Mexican war broke out, Lee, who was then captain, served in the army under General Scott. He distinguished himself greatly throughout the campaign, and was brevetted as colonel for his conduct at the seizure of Chapultepec, where he was wounded. In 1852 he was appointed superintendent of the Academy at West Point, and in 1855 he was promoted lieutenant-colonel of the second regiment of cavalry, with which he served in Texas. In March, 1861, he was made colonel of the first regiment of cavalry, but in the following month, learning that his native State had withdrawn from the Union, he resigned as an officer of the United States Army, and was forthwith put in command of the Virginian forces. When Virginia joined the Confederacy he was the third of five generals appointed by the Southern Congress. No adequate opportunity of gaining distinction was afforded him, however, until the beginning of June, 1862, when he received command of Northern Virginia and commenced the series of operations, the result of which, before the month had closed, was to compel McClellan to abandon the siege of Richmond. Following up this advantage and Jackson's victory at Cedar Run on August 9th, Lee advanced in person to lead the army that was being formed on the south bank of the Rapidan. After crossing that river he inflicted upon Pope at Manassas the disastrous defeat by which the Federal army was compelled to retire within the fortified lines of Washington. Lee now decided on the invasion of Maryland, and advanced to Frederick City, but, be-

ing compelled to divide his forces, he sustained a check in the passes of South Mountain (September 16th, 17th) which compelled him to recross the Potomac. After a few weeks' breathing time he found himself again face to face with the Federal Army near Fredericksburg, early in November; on December 13th the enemy, having crossed the Rappahannock on the previous day, assailed his position in strength, but was defeated in great loss.

In the following spring the hostile armies still faced one another on the Rappahannock, but the brilliant strategy of Lee, as exhibited in the battles at Chancellorsville (May 2-4) against vastly superior forces, resulted in the defeat of the enemy, while Lee was left free to resume his old policy of throwing the Federal forces on the defensive by an advance into Pennsylvania. He encountered the enemy near Gettysburg on July 1st, and decided advantages were gained, but the struggle was renewed on the two following days with disastrous consequences to him; he retreated, however, in good order, and reached Virginia on the 12th, when the campaign of the year practically closed. That of 1864 began on May 4, when Grant crossed the Rapidan; the passage itself was unresisted; but subsequent progress was hotly contested in a series of well-fought battles, which did not prevent the Federal general from reaching the south side of the Appomattox. The siege of Petersburg began in June, and lasted until April 2, 1865. A week afterward Lee surrendered with his whole army, thus virtually terminating the war. In the same year he was elected President of Washington and Lee University at Lexington, Virginia, which office he retained until his death on October 12, 1870.

To do justice to his extraordinary ability as a general, displayed under circumstances of extreme difficulty, when his movements were continually hampered by political necessities, as well as by the lack of material resources, would require an elaborate military biography. It was no more nobly displayed than in the last hopeless

stages of the fatal struggle. The personal history of Lee is lost in the history of the great crisis of America's national life. Political friends and foes alike acknowledged the disinterestedness and purity of his motives, his self-denying sense of duty and the unrepinning loyalty with which he accepted the ruin of his party.

WILLIAM T. SHERMAN.

1820-1891

William Tecumseh Sherman was born at Lancaster, Ohio, on the 8th of February, 1820. His father, Charles R. Sherman, had once been a judge of the superior court of Ohio, and his brother, John Sherman, became an American Senator, Secretary of the Treasury and Secretary of State. After his father's death in 1829, leaving a large family and small income, William was adopted as a son by Senator Thomas Ewing, a devoted friend of his father, and grew up in his family. Here he formed a warm attachment for the senator's daughter Ellen, then a charming girl, whom he continued to love and who in time became his wife.

Senator Ewing gained him admission to the West Point Military Academy in 1836. Here he was a diligent student, though he showed no special desire to be a soldier. Graduating in 1840, he was commissioned second lieutenant in the artillery service, and during the years that followed was kept busily engaged, at first against the Seminoles in Florida and afterwards at Moultrie and in California. His marriage with Ellen Ewing took place in Washington in 1850. He was made captain in 1851, and in 1853 he resigned from the army and became a banker in San Francisco.

During the eight years that followed Sherman was not very successful in business. The bank went out of existence in 1857; then he vainly tried his hand as a lawyer in Kansas, and in 1860 got a position as superintendent of a new military academy in Louisiana.

In January, 1861, the Southern States were seceding and Sherman was warmly implored to serve under the flag of the South. His reply was warm with patriotism: "I will maintain my allegiance to the old Constitution as long as a fragment of it survives."

In March he went to Washington, where his brother John was just taking his seat in the Senate. The two tried in vain to induce the President to prepare for war; but when Fort Sumter was fired upon there was a sudden change, seventy-five thousand three-months' men were called out, and Sherman was sent for. When he reached Washington he told the authorities that they were making a great mistake by enlisting short-term men. You might as well try to put out the flames of a burning house with a squirt gun," he said, and refused to go to Ohio to enroll three-months' volunteers. He was one of the few men in the army who saw from the start that the government had a great war, not a temporary rebellion, on its hands.

In June Sherman was commissioned colonel of an infantry regiment, and at the battle of Bull Run, July 21, he commanded a brigade, doing his utmost to save the army from defeat. On August 3d he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and in September was sent to Kentucky. In October he was given the chief command of the department, and the Secretary of War asked him how many men he needed. He replied, with a keen prevision of coming events, "Sixty thousand to drive the enemy out of Kentucky and two hundred thousand to finish the war in this section." This was considered so wildly extravagant that he was removed from the command, as an unsafe, if not mentally deficient, man, and was put in a subordinate position under General Halleck. It was not long before they learned that the man they deemed insane was wiser than they.

It was not till April, 1862, that Sherman, as commander of the fifth division of General Grant's army, was able to show the metal of which he was made. On the 6th and 7th of that month the

desperate battle of Shiloh was fought, and here his coolness, skill and energy went far to save the day. Grant wrote of him, "At the battle of Shiloh, on the first day, he held, with raw troops, the key-point of the landing. . . . To his individual efforts I am indebted for the successes of that battle." Halleck also wrote to the effect that Sherman saved the fortunes of the day on the 6th. On the 7th he led his battered troops with heroic energy into the fight, and after the victory he pushed out and whipped the enemy's cavalry, capturing a large supply of ammunition. Rousseau said of him, "He fights by the week." During the battle he was wounded in the hand and had three horses shot under him.

It was evident that in Sherman the North had a fighting soldier, and in May he was raised in rank to major-general of volunteers. A few days later he took an active part in the siege of Corinth, which was evacuated on the 29th. Sherman's next important work was in Grant's operations against Vicksburg, which began in December, 1862, and continued until July, 1863. He led the division that made the first direct assault upon Vicksburg, striking at the stronghold from the mouth of the Yazoo River, on the north side. The attempt was unsuccessful, not from any lack of courage or skill, but simply because the place was too strong to be taken by assault. Only a siege could reduce it, and this Grant recognized when he cut loose from his base and "swung around to the south."

In the battles that followed in the rear of Vicksburg, Sherman was active; he took part in an assault on the city on May 22d, and after its fall on July 4th, he marched against General Johnston and drove him from Jackson, the capital of Mississippi. About this time he expressed his sentiments as follows: "The people of the North must conquer or be conquered. There can be no middle course." The event proved that he was correct in this as in his former utterances.

Chattanooga, on the Tennessee, was the next point of interest. Here Gen-

eral Thomas, after the day of disaster at Chickamauga, led his troops and held the place, threatened by Bragg in front and by starvation in the rear. Grant hurried to his relief, and sent for Sherman, then in command at Memphis, four hundred miles away. He responded with his usual promptness and by a forced march reached Chattanooga about November 15. It was the men under his command who, on the 25th, led by him, made the phenomenal rush up the steep face of Missionary Ridge, which swept Bragg and his men from their stronghold and put an effectual end to the siege. Immediately afterwards he marched to the relief of Burnside, who was besieged at Knoxville, his cavalry reaching there on the 3d of December, to find that the enemy had not waited for his coming. He wrote in his official report:

"The men had marched for long periods, without regular rations of any kind, through mud and over rocks, sometimes barefoot, and without a murmur. Without a moment's rest, after a march of over four hundred miles, without sleep for three successive nights, they crossed the Tennessee River, fought their part in the battle of Chattanooga, pursued the enemy out of Tennessee, then turned once more one hundred miles north and compelled Longstreet to raise the siege of Knoxville, which had been a source of anxiety to the whole country."

During the winter that followed Sherman made a raid to Meridian, in central Mississippi, destroying railroads and capturing large quantities of stores. But the great opportunity in his career came after March 12, 1864, when Grant was made Commander-in-Chief of all the armies. The forces between the Mississippi and the Alleghanies were put under Sherman, and when Grant projected his great movement against Lee in the beginning of May, he ordered Sherman to move at the same time against Johnston, then commanding the Confederate forces in his front. Grant wrote to him with warm commendation saying: "I express my thanks to you and McPherson as

the men to whom, above all others, I feel indebted for whatever I have had of success."

On May 5th the movement began. Of its purpose Sherman in his "Memoirs," says, "Neither Atlanta, Augusta nor Savannah was the objective, but the 'Army of Joe Johnston,' go where it might." Against that army he moved, Johnston retreating, striking as he went, Sherman persistently advancing. For several months marching and fighting were almost continuous. The country was broken, and covered with brush and woodland, its roads or tracks, mean at the best, becoming quagmires whenever it rained. At every available spot Johnston impeded the march. Battles were fought at each defensive point, the hardest that at Kenesaw Mountain, where Sherman lost twenty-five hundred men. Sherman's progress resembled that of Grant. When his opponent could not be driven out he was flanked and forced to retire to another strong point.

The Fabian policy of the cautious Johnston did not please the cabinet General at Richmond. They wanted a more aggressive general, one who would seek to drive Sherman back, and about mid-summer they removed Johnston and put the hard fighter Hood in his place. They lost rather than gained by the change. Hood made furious attacks, lost men by the thousands, but met with continued defeat, and on the 1st of September, fearing to be surrounded in Atlanta and cut off from his base of supplies, he evacuated that town, leaving it to Sherman's troops.

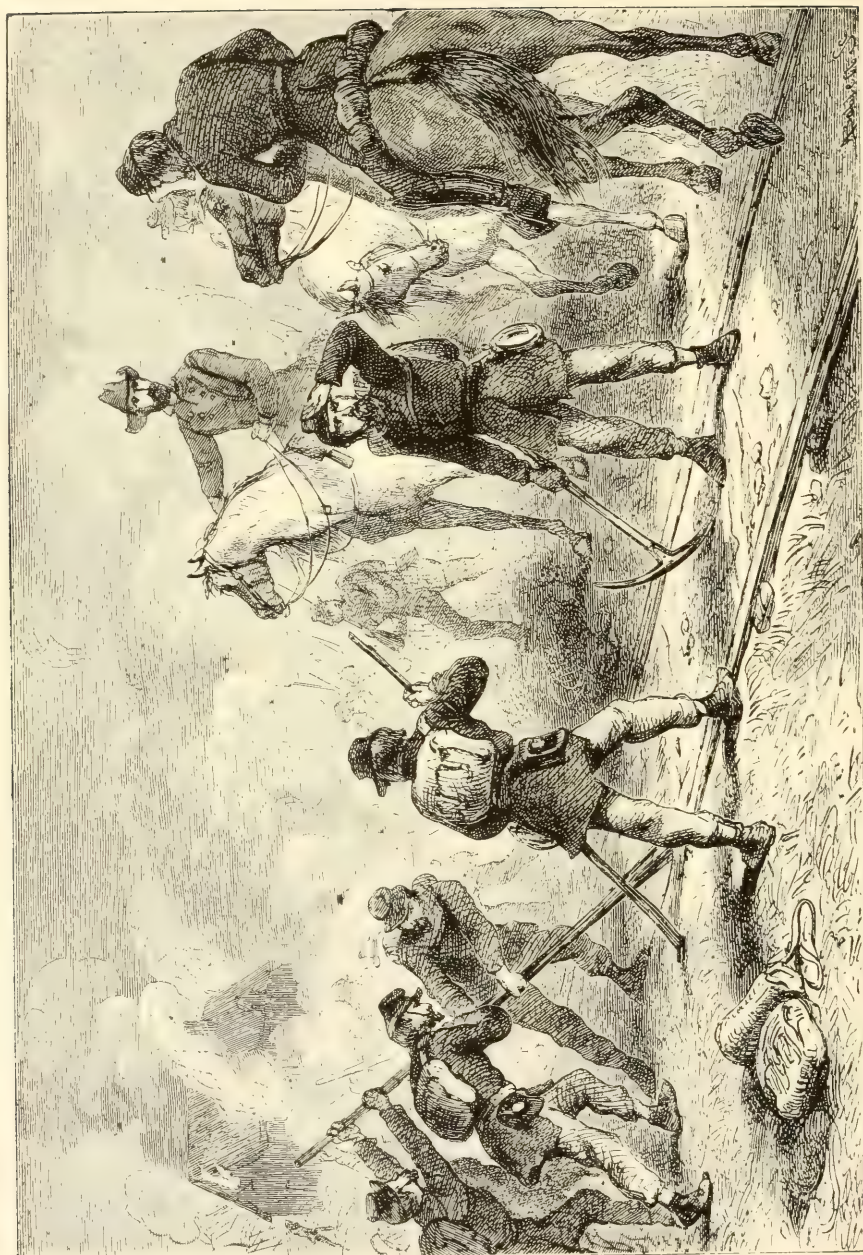
The news of the fall of Atlanta filled the North with delight. Sherman was the hero of the hour. At all the chief military posts a salute of one hundred guns was fired in his honor. He had won the first great success of the year. Grant highly praised the brilliancy of his campaign. His official reward was promotion to Major-General in the regular army. There he lay, in the heart of the Confederacy, his work only begun, not ended. Before taking another step he awaited the move-

ments of his antagonists. When they came Sherman was delighted. Hood, finding himself helpless before his strong foe, and knowing it to be useless to strike in front, decided to strike from the rear, to cut Sherman's long line of communication, and by threatening his base of supplies, to force him to retreat. He could not have done anything more to the liking of his shrewd antagonist. "If Hood will go to Tennessee," said Sherman, with a chuckle, "I will supply him with rations for the trip." All he did was to send General Thomas to Nashville to protect his rear, while he himself prepared for a new and daring project, to perform which he wanted Hood and his veterans out of the way.

Georgia lay before him, the greatest source of supply for the Confederate armies "the work-shop and corn-crib of the South." Savannah lay on the sea, nearly three hundred miles away. The withdrawal of Hood had left the field open for him. He could let go his base of supplies. Georgia was able to feed him and his army. Savannah once reached, the ships of the North could bring all he needed. It was a great and spectacular plan, the device of a soldier of genius.

None knew of his project, North or South. Nothing so bold was dreamed of. He and his army simply disappeared from view and for a month nothing was heard of them. There was intense anxiety in the North about his fate, many fearing that he had walked into a trap from which he might never escape. President Lincoln did not appear to share this anxiety. He had as much confidence in Sherman as in Grant and simply said to anxious inquirers, in his humorous way, "I know which hole he went in at, but I do not know which hole he will come out at."

Meanwhile, Sherman was "marching through Georgia," with hardly an enemy to oppose him, with scarcely an obstacle in his path. He set out from Atlanta on November 16th, with an army of sixty-two thousand strong. Through Georgia he swept, with a



SHERMAN'S MARCH TO THE SEA

front thirty miles from wing to wing, cutting a broad swath through the center of the State, gathering food from the country, rendering it incapable of furnishing supplies to the Confederacy. It was to the soldiers like a holiday march. To the slaves it was the "day of jubilee." Thousands of them followed the army, flocking from every plantation, keeping on for miles when told that there was no food to give them. They were content to starve, if they could only get freedom.

On December 13th, Fort McAllister, near Savannah, was captured. On the 21st the city surrendered. Two days afterwards Sherman sent the President a dispatch that has become famous: "I beg to present you as a Christmas gift the city of Savannah, with one hundred and fifty guns and plenty of ammunition, and about twenty-five thousand bales of cotton." The success of the daring march was brilliant. Sherman wrote, "We have not lost a wagon on the trip and our trains are in a better condition than when we started."

The news of this great march filled the North with exultation. There was a strain of the romantic and unusual in it that riveted men's attention. Sherman's enterprise had proved an easy and safe one, but it seemed as if he had plunged through a sea of danger, and men looked upon him as if he was one of the daring knight errants of old. For a time nothing was talked of but Sherman's wonderful march, and the song in which it was commemorated is still a favorite marching tune.

But the work of dissecting the Confederacy, which he had set out to do, was but half accomplished. After giving his men a thorough rest in Atlanta, he set out, on January 15th, 1865, to cut it in twain from South to North. Northward he went, opposition melting away before him. Town after town was occupied. Columbia, the beautiful capital of South Carolina, took fire from burning cotton and was more than half consumed. Charlestown, which had held out for four years against all attacks from the sea, surrendered without a blow and without

Sherman's going near it. North Carolina was reached and here Sherman for the first time found a strong force, under his old opponent, General Johnston, gathered to meet him. Only one battle was fought, at Bentonville, on March 21, in which Johnston was beaten with heavy loss. He fell back on Raleigh, and Sherman was pursuing him when, on April 11th, news reached him of General Lee's surrender two days before.

Further fighting would have been murder. The Confederacy was conquered. Its leaders recognized this, and on April 26, Johnston surrendered, being granted the same terms as were given to General Lee. The last appearance of Sherman's army in history was on May 24, in Washington, where it took part in the great two day's review. Sherman in his "Memoirs," says of it as it appeared that day: "It was, in my judgment, the most magnificent army in existence, sixty-five thousand men in splendid physique, who had just completed a march of nearly two thousand miles in a hostile country."

With this review the spectacular portion of Sherman's life ended. He remained a soldier, honored and revered, seeking no political honors, asking for no place or privilege. When, in 1868, Grant was appointed general of the army, Sherman succeeded him as lieutenant-general. When Grant was inaugurated as President, March 4, 1869, Sherman was raised to the rank of general. He was relieved at his own request, November 1, 1883, and was succeeded by Sheridan. He then took up his residence in St. Louis, afterwards removing to New York, where he died February 14, 1891.

An able critic thus sums up Sherman's qualities as a soldier: "Above all his other excellencies shone his promptitude, celerity, and immeasurable activity. What for some commanders were winter-quarters were to him a bivouac. Always ready for the start, indefatigable on the march, omnipresent in battle, relentless in pursuit, General Sherman made himself

not only more feared but more respected by the enemy than any general in the national armies, save, perhaps, the one who commanded them all."

Sherman was able not only as a soldier but as a writer. His "Memoirs" tell admirably the story of his military career and have given him a high literary reputation. As a speaker he was ready and apt, and said so many striking things that Chauncey Depew declared that "he never ought to be permitted to go anywhere without being accompanied by a stenographer." He was not partisan either in politics or religion. In politics no one could tell which party he favored, while in religion he expressed his creed in the following pithy sentence: "If men will only act half as well as they know how, God will forgive them the balance."

ULYSSES S. GRANT.

1822-1885

Ulysses S. Grant was born on the 27th of April, 1822, at Point Pleasant, Clermont County, Ohio, about twenty-five miles from Cincinnati. He is of good old Revolutionary stock. His great-great-grandfather, Noah Grant, was captain of a company of colonial militia in the French and Indian war, and as one of the patriots fell bravely fighting at the battle of White Plains, in 1776.

The family originally came from Scotland, and Noah Grant settled in Connecticut. The father of Ulysses, Jesse Root Grant, was born in Westmoreland County, Pennsylvania. His father, Noah Grant, Jr., who was born in Connecticut, began his military career as an officer at the battle of Lexington, and served with honor and devotion through the Revolutionary War. When a boy of sixteen Jesse R. Grant was sent to Kentucky to learn the trade of a tanner, and at the expiration of his apprenticeship moved to Ohio, where he married Hannah Simpson, and after many years of close application to his trade, secured a comfortable fortune, and turning the tannery over to his

sons Orville and Simpson, he retired from business.

Ulysses was the eldest son, and had necessarily been called upon early to assist his father in the routine of work. He early developed a fancy for horses and a talent for breaking and driving them. It is related of him that when only seven years old he harnessed a three-year-old colt to a sled and hauled wood, and by the time he was ten years old he was frequently sent by his father to Cincinnati with loads of wood and leather to deliver to customers. His skill as a rider became so remarkable that at twelve years of age he could stand upon the back of a horse going at full speed, supporting himself only by the bridle. At about the same age he succeeded in riding the trick pony at a circus, despite all efforts to dismount him, the ringmaster even unfairly bringing a monkey to his assistance, which fastened itself on the head and shoulders of Ulysses.

At one time, when his father had undertaken to build the county jail, Ulysses came in one day with a load of logs and reported that there was no one to help him load. "Why, how did you load this morning?" asked his father, in surprise. "Oh, Dave and I loaded," he replied. Dave was one of the strong, heavy horses of the team. The surprising part of it was that the logs would have required fifteen or twenty men to lift any one of them, but the sturdy little boy had hitched the horse to the logs, one at a time, and dragged them across a fallen tree until one end was high enough to back the wagon under them; then with the horse he pulled them on the wagon and drove home with his load.

At about twelve years of age, while driving a team of horses before a light wagon, he was requested to take two young women to Georgetown, where he lived. There had been a heavy rain, and the creek which he had forded on the previous day had risen over its banks, and after driving a short distance into the water he found that the horses were swimming. The water



ULYSSES SIMPSON GRANT

filled the wagon box and the girls became very much frightened, but little Ulysses said: "Now don't be making a fuss there. Keep quiet and I'll take you through safe;" and holding the horses steadily with the reins, he swam them to the opposite bank.

Ulysses disliked work in the tannery and declared that he would not be a tanner, but wanted to be a farmer or merchant. His father suggested West Point, and the idea took finely with the boy, and, on an appointment being secured, he entered the Military Academy at the age of seventeen. There happened to be another Grant in the same class, and the boys nicknamed U. S. Grant "Uncle Sam" to distinguish him from the other Grant.

At the academy Ulysses kept at about the middle of his class, and graduated from that position. In the dry studies he did not take much interest, but in all the military exercises, and especially in horsemanship, he excelled.

On the 1st of July, 1843, Grant received the appointment of Brevet Second Lieutenant in the United States Army, and was assigned to duty at Jefferson Barracks, in Missouri, where he remained until 1844, when he was sent with his regiment to Camp Salubrity, in Louisiana. The only notable thing he remembers doing at this camp was learning to smoke cigars.

But the cloud of war was hovering over the locality of our young lieutenant, and in 1845 he was sent to Corpus Christi to take command in the army under General Taylor, who was then holding himself in readiness for orders to pounce upon the Mexicans who were menacing the border. Soon after his arrival Grant was promoted to the rank of second lieutenant, and on the 8th of May, 1846, he participated in the battle of Palo Alto, and the next day again in that of Resaca de la Palma. The first battle was a duel with cannon, lasting all day, in which Lieutenant Grant had but little opportunity to display his bravery. But the next day, the Mexicans, whom our heavy cannon had forced to retire in the first battle, rallied in a thicket of small tim-

ber and again fought fiercely a battle of infantry in which Grant displayed his first qualities of skill and bravery.

On the 23d of September he participated in the fierce battle of Monterey, in which General Taylor marched boldly upon the city garrisoned by ten thousand Mexican soldiers, and after two or three days' fierce fighting in the streets and at the fortifications of the city, compelled it to surrender.

This ended his campaign with General Taylor, and he was soon afterward sent with his regiment to join the army of General Scott, who was then preparing for an attack on Vera Cruz. This afforded Grant an opportunity of engaging in the siege and capture of that stronghold. His brave conduct here marked him for a reward, and he was appointed Regimental Quartermaster. Notwithstanding his new position, he engaged with his regiment in the battle of Cerro Gordo, also in those of San Antonio, Cherubusco and Molino del Rey, in which latter glorious engagement he so distinguished himself that he was promoted to the brevet rank of First Lieutenant. At the storming of Chapultepec he added to his laurels such a record for bravery that he was breveted a captain.

With the capture of the City of Mexico, Grant had engaged in every battle of the war except Buena Vista.

His military career in Mexico was now at an end, and he returned with his regiment to New York City, whence he was sent to Sackett's Harbor. Here, obtaining a short leave of absence, he married Miss Julia T. Dent, the daughter of a St. Louis merchant.

In 1849 he went with his regiment to Fort Brady, where he remained for two years. In 1852 the regiment was sent to the Pacific coast, and one battalion, including Grant's company, was ordered to Columbia Barracks, in Oregon. Grant, however, soon became so tired of the life in that wild, remote locality that he resigned his commission and returned to his wife and civilization in St. Louis.

Being now thrown on his own resources, he followed one of his boyish

inclinations, and settled on a farm which Mrs. Grant's father had given her. He began by hewing logs for his dwelling, and built the house himself. The farm was small, so it required his hardest labor to secure from it a support for his family. In the winter he and his son hauled wood to St. Louis, each driving a team.

Four years of farming found Grant discouraged with results, and moving to St. Louis, he opened a real estate office, but gave it up for a position in the Custom House, which he soon lost by the death of the Collector. In 1860 he moved to Galena and engaged with his brother in the leather business. Scarcely was he settled in his new avocation when the attack upon Fort Sumter aroused his military enthusiasm, and as soon as the call was made for volunteers, he took command of a company in Galena, and went with it to Springfield to report to the Governor for duty. Here his fifteen years' service in the regular army made him so familiar with all the details of military matters that his merits were soon discovered by the Governor, who placed him in charge of the Twenty-first Illinois Regiment, and, greatly to his surprise, sent him the commission of Colonel. His regiment was soon after ordered to guard the line of the Hannibal and St. Joseph Railroad. From this point the regiment went to Ironton, Mo., and while passing through St. Louis Colonel Grant received a commission promoting him to Brigadier-General, and assigned him to the command of Southeastern Missouri, Southern Illinois and Western Kentucky and Tennessee. Reporting to General Fremont at St. Louis, he was at once instructed to make his headquarters at Cairo, Ill., to which place he repaired on the 1st of September.

Grasping the situation with his fine military mind, he realized that Paducah and Smithland, at the mouths of the Tennessee and Cumberland Rivers, were two strategic points which should not be left to fall into the hands of the rebels, who were concentrating their forces for the occupation of Kentucky.

To secure these points, General Grant, on the night of the 5th of September, embarked his troops on transports under convoy of two gunboats, and on the morning of the 6th arrived at Paducah and took possession. Grant returned to Cairo the same day; General C. F. Smith was placed in command of Paducah, and troops were sent to take possession of Smithland and fortify it sufficiently to hold the mouth of the Cumberland River.

General Grant now devoted his time to fortifying Cairo and organizing and drilling the raw troops who were coming in every day. There was such a lack of efficient officers that General Grant had to perform most of the work himself, and teach the officers how to make out their different reports and requisitions.

During this time General Grant had gathered a force of 20,000 troops at Cairo. But the rebels, far from being idle, had taken possession of Columbus, Ky., on the bank of the Mississippi River, about twenty miles below Cairo, and were rapidly fortifying its heights so as to command the river. To still further secure their position, they had formed a camp at Belmont, on the Missouri shore, under the protection of the guns at Columbus. From this camp the rebels intended to make raids in Missouri. The position at Columbus was a strong one, and if allowed to be held would be a constant menace to both Paducah and Cairo, besides barring the navigation of the Mississippi.

General Grant did not feel that his force was strong enough to capture Columbus, but he was quick to see that he could inflict a severe punishment on the rebels at Belmont, and on the night of the 6th of November he, with about three thousand men, embarked on transports, convoyed by two gunboats, and landed early next morning above Columbus, just out of range of the enemy's guns, and quickly and quietly marching through the forest, made an impetuous charge upon the camp at Belmont, and swept the rebels out of their positions, capturing their camp, artillery and many prisoners.

The repulse of the rebels could be seen from Columbus and General Polk began immediately throwing reinforcements across the river. This afforded Pillow an opportunity to reorganize his command, and preparations were quickly made to assail the Union forces in the rear. But Grant was quick to discover the movement, and seeing transports crossing from Columbus with reinforcements, he hastily burned the rebel camp and began his retreat. Almost immediately he discovered a rebel force between him and his transports, and he ordered a charge which swept the enemy from before him, and gaining the cover of the gunboats, he embarked and returned to Cairo.

This battle opened the campaign in that military division, and the rebels began at once to strengthen their positions for active work. They at once reinforced Columbus with a large garrison and heavy guns, and fortified Bowling Green. They also constructed Fort Henry, on the Tennessee, and Fort Donelson on the Cumberland, about twelve miles distant from each other. These forts were made very strong, guns of the heaviest calibre were mounted, and the rebels believed they would be able to control the two rivers and prevent the ascent of the Union fleet and forces. The nearness of the forts to each other would enable one to reinforce the other, and the rebels did not believe that they could be taken.

General Grant quickly realized the great importance of capturing both these forts, and secured from General Halleck the order for the movement. Fort Henry was the first point of operation, and on the 2d of February General Grant started upon the expedition with seventeen thousand men on transports, accompanied by seven ironclad gunboats, commanded by Commodore Foote, and, landing the troops a few miles below Fort Henry for an attack upon the rear, the gunboats steamed up within short range and opened a terrific fire upon the fort. The fire was vigorously returned by the fort, and General Tilghman, who was in command, stood bravely by his artillerymen,

directing their fire. But the ironclads had the advantage of the heaviest guns, and completely silenced the fort in an hour and a half, and compelled its surrender. Owing to high water and almost impassable roads, Grant's main army did not reach the fort in time to strike it in the rear, as was intended, nor to intercept the main body of the garrison, which escaped to Fort Donelson.

On the 12th of February General Grant made the advance on Fort Donelson. The rebels in the meantime had been making the greatest preparation for the impending struggle, and had not only largely increased their force, but had greatly strengthened the fort, which naturally was a strong position, being built on a ledge of rocks which overlooked the river for miles. It possessed water batteries, mounting columbiads and similar heavy guns. There were ramparts, re-entrants, curtains, salients, bastions and rifle-pits, and the approaches on both the land and the water side were made practically impassable by heavy abatis.

On the afternoon of the 12th there were slight skirmishes between the rebels on the outer lines and McClelland's and Smith's commands, but General Grant was wisely investing the fort, and holding back from an engagement until the gunboats returned with the transports and reinforcements, as at that time the rebel forces far exceeded that of the Union army.

On the night of the 13th Commodore Foote arrived, bringing the much-wished-for reinforcements. The next day the newly arrived troops were all assigned to their positions, and all things being in readiness, the fleet of gunboats steamed up at about 3 p. m. within short range of the fort and opened fire. If Commodore Foote anticipated as easy work as he had experienced at Fort Henry, he was doomed to disappointment. The relative positions of the two forts were very different. Fort Henry was on low ground, with a river bank overflowing, while Fort Donelson looked down on the gunboats from an elevation of thirty

or forty feet, and could discharge her solid shot with terrific effect on the gunboats. Such was the disadvantage that at the end of an hour and a half the gunboats had been so roughly handled as to be compelled to draw off. This led the rebels to believe that they had won a victory by driving off the gunboats, but, as Colonel Oglesby said: "Grant had gone there to take that fort, and he would stay until he did it"; and as the rebels saw the Union forces growing in numbers every day the siege continued, they began to lose hope, and Floyd, on a consultation with his generals, decided that they must, if possible, cut their way out and escape. This plan, unfortunately for the Union forces, was put into execution while Grant was absent on the flagship, having been sent for by Commodore Foote. The attack naturally fell on the weakest part of the line, and the head of the army not being on the field to direct the movement of the forces, one brigade after another was forced back, and Pillow was so sure of victory that he sent word to Johnston at Nashville that he had won the day. But he had "reckoned without his host." Grant returned, and for the first time became aware of the situation. He was surprised at the attack, and could not understand it until he saw that the knapsacks of the rebels were packed and their haversacks were filled with rations. At once he saw that they were fighting their way out, and as soon as he communicated this to the officers and soldiers, it revived their courage, and General Grant at once, by a masterly Napoleonic move, reformed the lines, and charging the enemy, pushed them back into their lines, and when night closed the engagement, it found the Union forces victorious. Floyd now saw that there would be no alternative but to surrender, and resigning the command to Pillow, who in turn resigned to Buckner, these two Generals stole away in the night, while Forrest, with more valor, fought his way out with his cavalry and escaped. There being no others desirous of taking the risk of fighting their way out, Buckner then sent a flag of truce to General

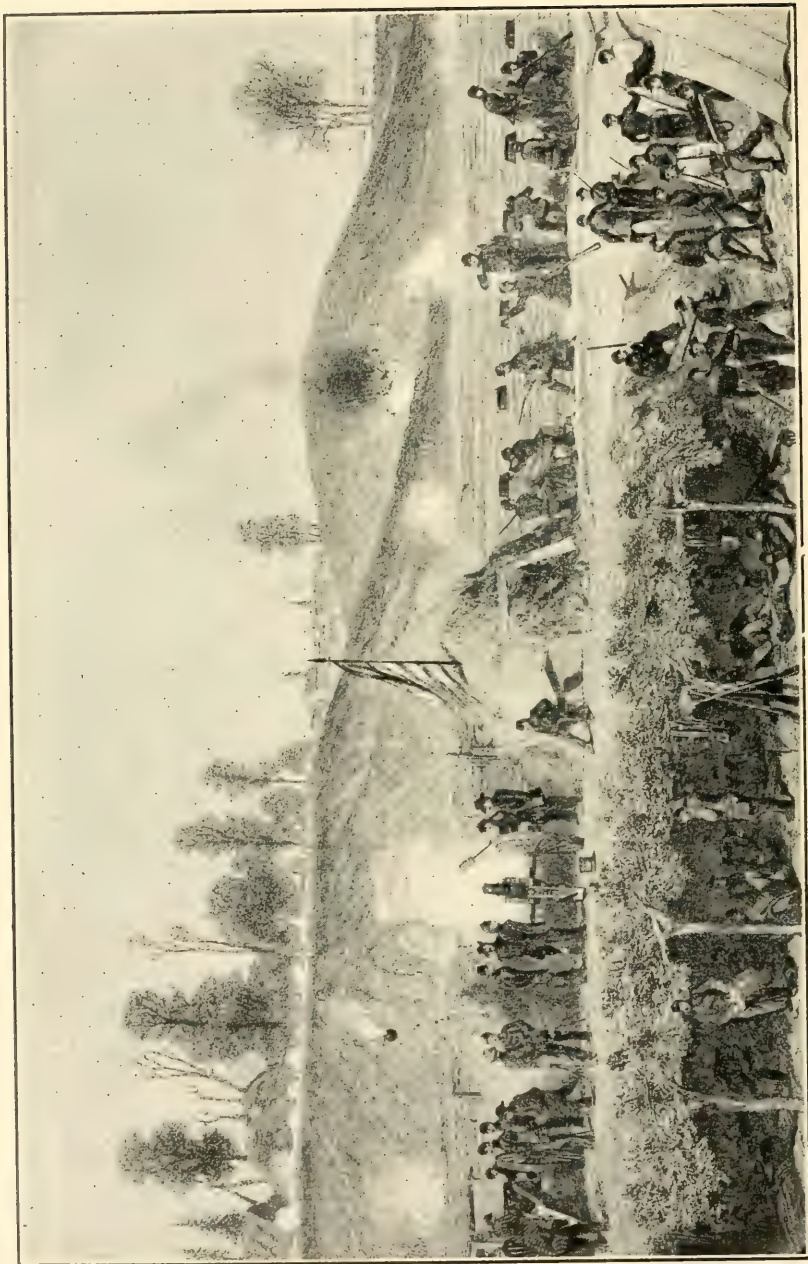
Grant, asking for an armistice and commissioners to arrange for capitulation. To this Grant replied: "No terms other than an unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works!" Buckner realized at once that delay would invoke a terrific slaughter of rebels, and he complied at once with the demand for "unconditional surrender," and Fort Donelson, with 14,623 men, 17 heavy siege guns, 48 pieces of field artillery, 20,000 stand of small arms, 3,000 horses, besides a large quantity of military stores, fell into the hands of Grant.

This was the most signal victory that had been secured, and it created the most universal joy among all Union people, while it had a depressing effect upon the rebels. Grant's name was heralded all over the land, and the greatest gratitude and praise were bestowed upon him. President Lincoln, quick to recognize the sterling qualities of the hitherto unknown man, rewarded him at once with a commission of Major-General.

The fall of Fort Donelson inflicted serious damage upon the rebel cause far beyond the limits of that fortification. It threw Southern Kentucky and a considerable portion of Middle Tennessee into possession of the Federal forces, and, together with Fort Henry, gave them the navigation of the Cumberland and Tennessee Rivers. It also forced the rebels to abandon Columbus, Bowling Green and Nashville, and allow large quantities of military stores to fall into our hands. It reached still further in its effects—it inspired hope and confidence in the Union soldiers and aroused a fear in the breasts of the rebels that they were not invincible, after all.

After this signal defeat, General Johnston, the rebel commander, concentrated his scattered forces and established a new defensive line at Island No. 10, in the Mississippi, and at Murfreesboro, but being soon compelled to evacuate Island No. 10, they changed their front to Corinth and Chattanooga.

Grant's successful operations at this



SIEGE OF VICKSBURG

time were delayed and his plans changed by Halleck, his superior in rank and his inferior in everything pertaining to military matters. In his envy of Grant's success and growing fame he assigned him to new districts, and gave the command of important expeditions to other officers, until Grant, feeling the injustice so keenly, insisted upon being relieved from further duty in the department until he could appeal to higher authority. This resulted in a slight relaxation of the restraint put upon Grant, and with his new command he again prepared to move for active service.

In the meantime the rebels had been making themselves strong by concentration, compelling all small Union commands in their vicinity to fall back. Indications pointed to a coming engagement on the line of the Tennessee, necessary to break the hold the rebels were securing in that quarter. On the 17th of March, 1862, General Grant began to concentrate his troops at Pittsburgh Landing on the Tennessee, where he was to await the arrival of General Buell from Nashville, with forty thousand troops. At this time Grant had but thirty-five thousand men, while the rebels had a force of seventy thousand concentrated at Corinth, only twenty miles away. General Johnston, who was in command at Corinth, realized the necessity of crushing Grant before Buell arrived, and at daylight on the 6th of April, the entire rebel force, after a quick march from Corinth, fell upon Grant's army in overwhelming numbers, and during the entire day one of the most bloody battles of the war was fought. The carnage was fearful, and the Union army was in the greatest danger of being swept into hopeless ruin. They were driven back to the river in the greatest disorder, and nothing but the gunboats saved them from an unconditional surrender. Bravery could avail but little against the overwhelming force of the rebels. This was the desperate condition of Grant's army when night closed the contest. The rebels

were confident of a complete victory the next morning.

During the afternoon Buell arrived in advance of his troops, and anxiously inquired of Grant what preparation he had made for a retreat across the river. "Why," replied Grant, "*I have not despaired of whipping them yet.*" "But," continued Buell, "you haven't steamboats enough to carry away ten thousand men." "Well," replied Grant, "*there won't be more than that many left when I get ready to go!*"

In the night 20,000 of Buell's troops arrived in advance of the others and crossed the river, where they were placed in position for an early resumption of hostilities the next morning. The arrival of fresh troops had so inspired the Union army with confidence that at daylight they fell upon the rebels in a charge so fierce and impetuous that the latter were filled with astonishment. Grant knew his strength and advantage, and he swept everything before him. All day the conflict raged with unprecedented fury, and at night the defeated rebels retreated to Corinth, leaving nearly 20,000 men dead on the field. Thus ended the battle of Shiloh on the first day and that of Pittsburgh Landing on the second, in which Grant wrested a grand victory out of defeat.

On the 9th of April Major-General Halleck arrived and assumed command. With the greatest caution he advanced on Corinth, intrenching his position at almost every step. In the entire siege, which was contemptible in a military point of view, General Grant was entirely ignored by Halleck and was practically relieved from command. The result of this slow and cautious advance was the escape of the rebels from Corinth with all their materials of war, to the great surprise of Halleck, who was doubtless considering his own chances of escape should he be attacked by the rebels. This fortunately ended his personal supervision of military movements in the West, for he was soon after called to Washington and Grant was again placed in command of the Army of the Tennessee. He soon

after placed Rosecrans in command of Corinth and improved the fortifications by shortening the lines. His military foresight and skill were soon evident, for the rebels, under Van Dorn, advanced upon Corinth and made a vigorous attack, which Rosecrans repulsed; and after a fierce battle the rebels retreated, pursued by the Union forces, leaving on the field nearly 1,500 officers and men and more than 5,000 wounded, besides losing over 2,000 prisoners.

The necessity for opening the Mississippi River was becoming more evident every day, and when General Grant requested permission of Halleck to make an attack upon Vicksburg, he found the General-in-Chief favorable to his plan, and he at once began to concentrate troops for the great campaign. His plan was to have the fleet co-operate with the land forces, and after a number of small battles in Mississippi, in which divisions of the army were engaged, General Grant pushed on with the entire force toward Vicksburg as rapidly as possible, issuing orders for the army to subsist from the country.

The siege of Vicksburg is such a history in itself that only general details can be given. As a natural military stronghold it could scarcely be surpassed by any other position occupied by the rebels. This city is located on a bluff, two hundred and fifty feet above low water mark, while innumerable swamps and bayous extend in all directions in the rear through the almost impenetrable forests, and never perhaps in the history of any siege since the world began were there so many natural obstacles to its progress. Every means was devised that human ingenuity could plan. Canals, passes, bayous and every other species of water-course were tried in the endeavor to pass Vicksburg with the fleet and army to a point of operation below, but these plans all failed. The forests, bayous and swamps were too much for human ingenuity, and giving up all these plans, General Grant concentrated the army in front of Vicksburg and decided to send

the ironclads and transports down the Mississippi River under the fire of the Vicksburg batteries, and on the 16th of April, at night, the fleet, under Admiral Porter, steamed past Vicksburg, under a terrific fire from the heaviest guns, to which all the gunboats replied with fearful energy while they floated with the current. After the fleet and army had reached a point below Vicksburg, General Grant worked incessantly to prepare for the grand assault which he knew must be made. Immediately he began a series of fierce assaults from day to day on the rebel lines, while all the operations of the siege were pushed vigorously forward. Nearer and nearer the works approached Vicksburg, while mines were sunk and sharpshooters from towers and treetops were constantly picking off the rebel gunners. On the 26th of June, a great mine, dug under one of the strongest batteries of the enemy, was exploded, with the most tremendous force, shaking the very city to its foundations, and strewing the air with dirt, timbers and cannon, and the mangled bodies of the rebels. This explosion was followed by an assault on the enemy's line of defense, which had been broken by the explosion, but it accomplished nothing.

At last Grant's works, mounted by heavy guns, were all completed, and he directed that the general attack be made on the morning of the 5th of July. Pemberton, the rebel commander at Vicksburg, realizing the terrific slaughter of his men that would result from the assault, sent out a flag of truce on the 3d for the appointment of commissioners to arrange for the capitulation. But Grant demanded unconditional surrender, although offering to meet Pemberton to arrange details. The meeting took place, and Pemberton accepted the terms, which allowed the officers and soldiers to be liberated on their paroles, taking with them their clothing, rations, cooking utensils and a limited number of wagons.

These terms were accepted, and on the 4th of July, and by three o'clock in the afternoon, Vicksburg was in our hands, with all its siege guns, small

arms and military stores. The force surrendered amounted to 27,000 men, including 6,000 wounded and sick in hospital.

This grand victory of General Grant's was one of the most important of the war, and resulted in opening the Mississippi from the Ohio to the Gulf.

General Sherman had, in the meantime, been sent with a force to attack Johnston, and succeeded in driving him from Jackson to Meridian.

On the 6th of June a detachment of colored troops, aided by the gunboats, defeated McCulloch's command of 3,000 rebels at Milliken's Bend.

A rebel force of 8,000 men made an attack upon the Union garrison at Helena on the 4th of July, but General Prentiss, assisted by the gunboats, made such a gallant resistance that the rebels were signally defeated and driven off.

As soon as the fall of Vicksburg relieved the necessity of the large force concentrated there, General Grant sent reinforcements to Banks, who was besieging Port Hudson, and on the 8th of July that rebel stronghold surrendered with 10,000 prisoners and 50 guns.

Thus were a series of smaller victories added to the brilliant conquest of Vicksburg, to the great discomfiture of the rebels and the depression of their cause. This successful campaign raised the fame of Grant above all the envious falsehood and villainous influences that had been brought to bear against him. He had proven himself the military superior not only of the rebel generals, but also of his enemies among the officers of our own army, and yet without pride or retaliation he pushed ahead and gave his noble services to the cause he so dearly loved.

After the fall of Vicksburg, President Lincoln and the Secretary of War so fully appreciated the ability of Grant that he was made Major-General of the regular army, which outranks a Major-General of volunteers.

In September General Grant was thrown from his horse in New Orleans, and for nearly three weeks was confined to his bed. During this time the

Union forces, under Rosecrans, received the well-remembered defeat at Chickamauga. Bragg's forces having been weakened by detachments being sent to other points, and Rosecrans feeling sure of success, pressed on after Bragg, who retreated through Chattanooga until he received the reinforcements of Buckner's, Longstreet's and Polk's commands. Then, with an army of eighty thousand men, he turned upon Rosecrans and almost crushed his army at Chickamauga, inflicting a loss of sixteen thousand men, killed, wounded and missing, and besieged Rosecrans in Chattanooga, where he was in the most critical situation.

General Grant, as soon as he learned of the disaster at Chickamauga and the dangerous position of Rosecrans, relieved him of the command and General Thomas was appointed in his place, with instructions telegraphed to hold Chattanooga at all hazards until reinforcements could reach him. The reply of Thomas was brief and business-like: "We'll hold the town till we starve." General Grant immediately set out for Chattanooga, and reached it on the 23d of October, when he commenced his plans of operation at once by opening a line of communication for reinforcements and supplies. General Sherman was ordered forward with all possible speed, and by a forced march, under the greatest difficulties of bad roads and flooded streams, that faithful warrior hurried forward his troops to reinforce Chattanooga.

As soon as Sherman arrived, General Grant was ready for offensive operations. He sent General Sherman, on the night of the 23d of November, across the Tennessee River to hold a position ready for attack upon Missionary Ridge. On the 24th General Hooker stormed Lookout Mountain and swept away the rebels in the greatest disorder from their position. The next day the entire army charged the rebels in one of the most terrific battles of the war, and when night came the rebels had been swept from every point, and in a wild rout they were fleeing toward Atlanta with General Grant in pursuit,

and the road strewn with everything that they could cast away in their wild rush for life and liberty.

Thus again did General Grant turn into a glorious victory the impending defeat and surrender which had hung over the besieged army at Chattanooga. The successful management of this battle is one of the most remarkable events in history, and its result was to drive back the rebels from Kentucky and Tennessee and prepare the Union army for finally breaking the back of the rebellion in Georgia.

The news of the great victory created the wildest enthusiasm for General Grant throughout the country, and on the 4th of February, 1864, a bill was passed in Congress reviving the grade of Lieutenant-General in the army, and calling General Grant to the command of all the armies of the United States. This at once relieved him from subjection to inefficient superiors and placed him in supreme command, subject only to the President. The bill was approved by Mr. Lincoln on the 1st of March, and on the 9th General Grant received his commission.

General Grant at once decided to end the rebellion on the banks of the Potomac, and began reorganizing the army and concentrating a great force in the East, knowing that the rebels would be compelled to withdraw or decrease their troops at all other points to defend Richmond and support Lee, thus leaving the West and South at the mercy of Sherman, Thomas, McPherson and similar able and faithful generals.

As soon as General Grant began to develop his plans all roads seemed to lead to the Potomac, and from every direction the martial tread of armies was heard. After locating and instructing his generals of the Eastern army, he gave to General Sherman a grand expedition, which only Grant and Sherman were capable of accomplishing, that of cutting the Confederacy in two, and breaking the back of the rebellion by that daring march from Atlanta to the sea.

For the first time in the history of the war the control of the army and its

military movements were in the hands of the two military giants of the country, and the result was soon to be what might have taken place two years earlier under their control—the end of the war. Lee had defeated every other General of the Army of the Potomac who had confronted him, and General Grant knew that the war would only end with the overthrow of the military leader of the rebellion. The time had come for his defeat, and no one knew it so well as Grant. The following ideas, expressed in one of his reports as Lieutenant-General, are worthy of the genius of Napoleon:

“From an early period in the rebellion I had been impressed with the idea that active and continuous operations of all the troops that could be brought into the field, regardless of season and weather, were necessary to speedy termination of the war. The resources of the enemy and his numerical strength were very inferior to ours; but, as an offset to this, we had a vast territory, with a population hostile to the Government, to garrison, and long lines of rivers and railroad communications to protect, to enable us to supply the operating armies.

“The armies in the East and West acted independently and without concert—like a balky team, no two pulling together—enabling the enemy to use to great advantage his interior lines of communication for transporting troops from east to west, reinforcing the army most vigorously pressed and to furlough large numbers during seasons of inactivity on our part, to go to their homes and to the work of providing for the support of their armies. It was a question whether our numerical strength and resources were not more than balanced by these disadvantages and the enemy’s superior position.

“From the first I was firm in the conviction that no peace could be had that could be stable and conducive to the happiness of the people of the North and South until the military power of the rebellion was entirely broken up.

“I therefore determined, first, to use the greatest number of troops practic-

able against the armed force of the enemy, preventing him from using the same force at different seasons against first one and then another of our armies, and the possibility of repose for refitting and producing necessary supplies for carrying on resistance; secondly, to hammer continuously against the armed force of the enemy and his resources, until, by mere attrition, if in no other way, there should be nothing left to him but an equal submission with the loyal sections of our common country to the Constitution and laws of the land.

"These views have been kept constantly in mind, and orders given and campaigns made to carry them out. Whether they might have been better in conception and execution is for the people, who mourn the loss of friends fallen, and who have to pay the pecuniary cost, to say. All that I can say is that what I have done has been done conscientiously, to the best of my ability and in what I conceived to be for the best interests of the whole country."

Relying implicitly on Sherman's ability to sweep irresistibly through Georgia to Savannah and thence northward, destroying railroads, devastating the country, capture Charleston, Columbia and other rebel strongholds, General Grant began his preparations.

On the 3d of May, 1864, at midnight, General Grant moved his whole army and crossed the Rapidan before daylight. Pushing on toward Spottsylvania his army swept through the Wilderness, and he disposed his troops in position to prevent every possible surprise.

Lee, in his perfect confidence secured by all previous experience with the Army of the Potomac, determined to fall upon Grant by surprise, and, by cutting his army in two, sweep him from the field. On the morning of the 5th Lee suddenly appeared, rushing impetuously upon the center of Grant's army, with his troops massed and bent upon dividing it and sweeping it in hopeless defeat across the Rapidan. But for once Lee had met his superior, and although he had forced the fight upon his own familiar ground, with his

own plan and at chosen time, he found himself at the close of the first day's terrific battle pressed back upon the field and six thousand of his men weltering in their blood. He realized that he had a desperate undertaking before him, and doubtless "bitterly thought of the morrow" as he waited for daylight to renew his carnage. The second day dawned, and fiercely through all its long hours the battle raged at every point, with each army pushing back divisions of the other and victory refusing to perch upon either standard. When night again closed upon the weary combatants, twenty thousand men lay dead and wounded on the fearful field.

It may appropriately be said that Lee was very much discouraged, and during the night he retreated to seek his intrenchments near Spottsylvania Court House; but Grant, with worthy courage and invincible determination, started in immediate pursuit, and the next day a running fight was kept up in a parallel line, but the dense growth of the trees and underbrush in the Wilderness was so thick that the two armies could scarcely see each other.

Thus passed the third day, and on the next morning General Grant made the attack upon Lee in his works, and drove the rebels from their outer intrenchments with a loss of about three thousand prisoners. Night again came, and the armies slept, as it were, with their hands on each other's throats. The next morning Grant was up at daylight, thundering away with his batteries at the rebel breastworks, and all day continued without an intermission. The next day it was resumed and fought with indescribable fury, and ended with an irresistible charge upon the enemy's works, sweeping them from the outer line and capturing two thousand prisoners. The loss in this day's terrific struggle was nearly ten thousand men on each side. Up to that time five thousand rebel prisoners had been taken, while only a few stragglers here and there had been secured from our army. It was at the close of this day's fighting that General Grant said

in his laconic message to the War Department: "*I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes me all summer.*"

On the next day, the 11th, the armies were so completely exhausted that there was no general engagement, but Grant was laying his plans, and at midnight General Hancock, in a terrific thunderstorm, charged the enemy's lines with such impetuous fury that he drove the rebels back from their intrenchments in that division, capturing over three thousand prisoners and thirty guns. This brave charge brought on a general engagement, which continued the remainder of the night and all the next day, with a loss in killed and wounded equal to that of the day previous. Had it not been for Meade's delay in reinforcing Hancock, an overwhelming victory would evidently have been gained over the rebels, but in the half hour in which the reinforcements were behind Lee had strengthened the force in front of Hancock until their position could not be carried, and the brave General was forced to abandon the captured intrenchments and fall back.

This day's battle resulted in forcing Lee to fall back to his inner lines, and General Grant took up a new position nearer the enemy. But he had formed a plan for a flank movement, and by a quick march carried his army south to a position beyond Spottsylvania Court House. Lee, however, had the shortest line of march, and, being on the alert, threw his force with great celerity into the intrenchments he had previously prepared in front of Grant's new position, with a view to prevent a march upon Richmond.

When General Grant had secured his new position he sent Sheridan with his cavalry to destroy the railroads and break Lee's communication with Richmond. This raid was successful in breaking railroad communication and in defeating Stuart's cavalry; and cutting his way through the country. Sheridan established his communications with Butler at Bermuda Hundred.

General Grant followed after this raid and took up a new position at

Guinea Station. The movements of General Grant had caused great uneasiness to Lee, who began to fear that his line of communication would be cut off, and that Grant would make a forced march and capture Richmond. He was therefore compelled to abandon his position and push on toward Richmond. His line of march was only a few miles from that of the Union forces, with whom he was keeping abreast. General Grant's army had been increased to one hundred and fifty thousand men, and as it swept on irresistibly Lee dared not risk an attack, and could only keep up with it and watch for some unguarded moment or some false military move; but Grant was not the General to permit such opportunities.

General Grant's plan of operations against Richmond had been matured with a view of uniting his army with the forces under Butler, whose movement began from Fortress Monroe and ended by taking up a strong position at Bermuda Hundred, which afforded an excellent base for operations against either Petersburg or Richmond. Knowing that he was sure of reinforcements on the south side of Richmond, General Grant pushed on with his army, hoping any moment to catch Lee at a disadvantage and to crush him.

General Grant reached Cool Arbor on the 1st of June, at which point he was within a few miles of Richmond with his line stretching nearly ten miles, at which point Lee made a vigorous assault upon the weakest part of the line, hoping to break it; but he was forced to fall back behind his fortifications, where Grant in turn made an attack upon him on the morning of the 3d. This was a gigantic conflict in which three hundred thousand men were engaged. Day after day the battle raged with terrible slaughter, without any particular advantage perceptible; but Grant knew that his blows were having a distressing effect upon Lee. On the night of the 5th the rebels in desperation charged upon the lines of the Union Army, under support of a fearful fire from their heavy

batteries, but they were met with a solid sheet of flame from our cannon, which poured forth the most deadly volleys of grape and canister, sweeping the rebels away like wheat before a sickle. Appalled at the terrible destruction the rebels turned and fled leaving their dead on the field.

On the 11th General Grant executed one of the most brilliant moves of the war, and while menacing Lee with skirmishers to conceal his object, he began a flank movement, and by a rapid march reached and crossed the James River, and forming a junction with General Butler, took up a position south of Richmond. Scarcely had the junction been formed before Grant began his attack upon Petersburg.

Lee was completely outwitted by this movement, and had it not been for the delay of General Grant's subordinates in carrying out his instructions Lee would have found the Union army in full possession of Petersburg when he arrived. It had not, however, been taken, and he poured his rebels into its fortifications until they were bristling at every point with bayonets and frowning with cannon. Then came the long, tedious siege and daily terrific struggles of the two armies.

While battling with Lee, General Grant did not forget the great importance of destroying the railroads and cutting off Lee's communications with the South. To effectually isolate Petersburg, General Grant ordered all the cavalry force of his army to not only destroy communications, but to join Hunter near Lynchburg, or to push on and unite with Sherman in Georgia, if the obstacles met were not too formidable.

All this time General Grant was making his position stronger and weaving the net around Petersburg that could not be broken through. To encourage him still more, he heard of Sherman's success in taking Atlanta, and he knew that the invincible old warrior, with his hundred thousand men, would soon be thundering toward the sea in his march of destruction, and if he only hurried in his Northern march, he

would doubtless be in at the death of the rebellion. Sherman's march had been one of the most remarkable and destructive in military history, and had been as irresistible as that of the old Roman legions. He had carried the war home to the South, and had not only cut the Confederacy in two, but had cut their communications and destroyed their supplies by sweeping a path of desolation sixty miles wide and three hundred miles long, in which railroads and everything that could aid the rebellion were destroyed, and beef, cattle, sheep, hogs, fowl, horses and mules captured for use of the army.

At this time it was evident that Lee was contemplating the evacuation of Petersburg and uniting with Johnston; but General Grant was on the alert for such a movement and ready to pounce on the enemy. He fully realized that if Lee was permitted to escape and form a junction with Johnston's army they would attempt to crush Sherman, and he was resolved to give Lee no rest or opportunity to strike another blow.

At the first movement of Lee which indicated that he had commenced the evacuation of Petersburg, Grant hurled his forces upon him and stormed his intrenchments in a terrific contest which lasted for three days. On the night of the third day, which was the 3d of April, 1865, Lee abandoned Petersburg and fled in the vain attempt to save his fated army. This retreat gave us Richmond and Petersburg; but Lee was yet to be taken, and as he fled down the north bank of the Appomattox he was vigorously pursued by the victorious army of the Union. With splendid military skill General Grant had sent Sheridan by a shorter route to throw the Fifth Army Corps across the path of the rebel retreat, and to the consternation of Lee he found himself surrounded and cut off from his supplies. In every direction Sheridan, Meade, Ord, Humphrey and other Generals of divisions were driving the rebels in at every attempt to escape, capturing prisoners, arms, military stores at almost every charge. The very rations

for the rebels had been captured, and in their half famished condition they lacked strength to make further resistance. Lee had evidently given up hope when he abandoned Petersburg, and in anticipation of surrender he allowed his soldiers to drop out of line along his entire route and return to their homes, until at the time he was completely surrounded at Appomattox Court House his army did not contain over ten thousand men in line.

General Grant, at this point, with real sympathy for the miserable remnant of the once proud army, and to save them from slaughter, sent the following dispatch to General Lee:

"GENERAL:—The result of the last week must convince you of the hopelessness of further resistance on the part of the Army of Northern Virginia in this struggle. I feel that it is so, and regard it my duty to shift from myself the responsibility of any further effusion of blood, by asking of you the surrender of that portion of the Confederate States Army known as the Army of Northern Virginia."

To this note Lee replied at once asking for the terms that would be offered on condition of surrender.

In reply General Grant insisted upon but one condition, namely: "That the men and officers surrendered shall be disqualified for taking up arms against the Government of the United States until properly exchanged." To this Lee replied in a manner that indicated his desire to delay the unpleasant matter of surrender as long as possible, and he expressed his wish to meet with General Grant rather more to arrange for terms of peace than for a surrender.

General Grant, after putting his troops in motion around Appomattox Court House, so that Lee could not mistake the alternative, sent the following note:

"GENERAL: Your note of yesterday is received. I have no authority to treat on the subject of peace; the meeting proposed for ten o'clock a. m. to-day could do no good. I will state, however, General, that I am equally anxious for peace with yourself, and

the whole North entertains the same feeling. The terms upon which peace can be had are well understood. By the South laying down their arms they will hasten that most desirable event, save thousands of human lives and hundreds of millions of property not yet destroyed. Seriously hoping that all our difficulties may be settled without the loss of another life, I subscribe myself," etc.

Lee, knowing that the surrender was inevitable, no longer parlied for delay, but sought for definite terms of surrender and accepted them.

Never before was a surrender conducted on more honorable terms or with kinder regard for the feelings of the vanquished, and the exhausted rebel soldiers were the first to raise the wild cheer of joy at the news of the surrender; then one united shout arose from the throats of the Union army, which was caught up in a universal hurrah of triumph throughout the land as soon as the joyful news was heralded over the wires. Peace at last! What glorious significance there was in the news!

The great rebellion was crushed, and it only remained for Johnston to surrender to Sherman, which he did on the 25th of April, and the other rebel commands throughout the country either to surrender to the Union troops in their front or to disband and return to their homes, to release our great army from further duty in the field.

The world had never before witnessed such a spectacle as the quiet, orderly and peaceful disbanding and dispersing of such an immense army, and it gave an additional guarantee of the stability of our republican institutions to realize that fierce soldiers could so quickly be returned to the arts of peace.

In token of the high appreciation of the country for the noble and patriotic services of Lieutenant-General Grant, he was on the 25th of July, 1866, promoted to the rank of General, the highest military grade possible in our army.

A still further compliment to his abil-

ity was paid by his appointment as Secretary of War *ad interim*, on the 12th of August, 1867. By the reconstruction acts of March, 1867, military commanders were appointed for the several districts into which the South was divided by the acts. These commanders General Grant advised, in his official instructions, to use great moderation and kindness toward the people of the South, and in all his duties, both as General of the army and as Secretary of War, he acted with excellent discretion and ability.

It must be said, in justice to General Grant, that he did not wish to accept the office of Secretary of War, and counseled the retaining of Mr. Stanton, and it was only when he saw that President Johnson was determined upon Stanton's removal that he accepted it, that it might not, in his own language, fall into the hands of some incompetent or unpatriotic person.

When President Johnson, without any reasonable pretext, removed Generals Sheridan, Sickles and Pope from their commands in the South, General Grant earnestly advised the President against the unwise act, but when Johnson persisted in his removal of the very men whom General Grant had recommended for the positions, he quietly acquiesced, and earnestly co-operated with the newly appointed commanders in the work of reconstruction.

One of the most beneficial services he rendered the country during his exercise of the office was the reduction of various expenses, by cutting down the number of employes in the Freedman's Bureau, also by transferring the duties of the Bureaus of Rebel Archives and of exchange of prisoners to the office of the Adjutant-General, besides closing many departments and offices which were the outgrowth of the war and whose sphere of usefulness had ceased with the war. In various other ways he cut down expenses connected with the War Department.

When the Senate met and refused to concur in the removal of Mr. Stanton, and decided that he be reinstated, General Grant at once quietly acqui-

esced and relinquished the office. President Johnson asserted that General Grant had promised that he would in this event either resign the Secretaryship or remain and resist the reinstatement of Mr. Stanton. This promise General Grant denied having made, and this was the question of veracity between the President and General Grant, on which the country generally stood by the General of the army.

On the 21st of May, 1868, the National Republican Convention, which met in Chicago, by acclamation nominated General Grant as their candidate for President of the United States. Just two days previous to the meeting of the convention, there had been held also in Chicago a convention of soldiers and sailors, who had unanimously nominated General Grant as their candidate for the presidency, which was a double indorsement of his sterling qualities and fitness for the position, more especially as many of the soldiers and sailors were War Democrats.

To the committee notifying General Grant of his nomination, he expressed the following sentiments in the concluding portion of his speech:

"If elected to the office of President of the United States it will be my endeavor to administer all the laws in good faith, with economy, and with the view of giving peace, quiet and protection everywhere. In times like the present it is impossible, or at least eminently improper, to lay down a policy to be adhered to, right or wrong, through an administration of four years. New political issues, not foreseen, are constantly arising; the views of the public on old ones are constantly changing; and a purely administrative officer should always be left free to execute the will of the people. I always have respected that will, and always shall. Peace and universal prosperity, its sequence, with economy of administration, will lighten the burden of taxation, while it constantly reduces the national debt. Let us have peace!"

The Democratic party nominated Horatio Seymour, a very popular man and an able statesman, as their candi-

date, and the contest was naturally an exciting one. General Grant received at the election 3,016,353 of the popular vote and Seymour 2,906,631. The electoral vote stood 214 for Grant and 80 for Seymour.

On the 4th of March, 1869, General Grant made his inaugural address and took the oath of office, upon which he entered with the confidence and highest respect of the entire country, regardless of party. In the sentiment he had previously uttered, "Let us have peace," the white wings of peace were hovering over the land, and the swords had been beaten into plowshares.

There were, however, many difficulties presenting themselves in his administration. Some of the Southern States were still undergoing reconstruction, while many political difficulties were constantly presenting themselves. One very important question was that of the welfare of the freedmen who had been cast upon the generosity of the government to work out political equality in the land, and to educate them and prepare them for self-support. Besides there were the usual intricacies of foreign relations, and many issues of a local and sectional as well as general interest to be disposed of, which have puzzled many a wise statesman.

But such was General Grant's uniform and satisfactory administration of the executive office that he was nominated for re-election by the National Republican Convention in 1872, and at the election he received 292 electoral votes, which placed him in the executive chair for a second term.

General Grant had long desired to make an extensive tour of foreign countries, and at the close of his second term he resolved to put his plans into execution. Starting soon after on a tour around the world, he visited England, France, Germany, Austria, Russia, Switzerland, Belgium, Italy, Spain, Turkey, India and China.

Everywhere he traveled he received the highest courtesies and most perfect ovations. His fame had reached the remotest ends of the earth, and men

who could not speak a word of our language gathered to do him honor.

On his return he again became one of the citizens of our great Republic, and has since been engaged in various business pursuits, having been one of the most active promoters of the proposed lines of railroads in Mexico.

He died at Mount McGregor, N. Y., July 23, 1885.

THOMAS JONATHAN JACKSON.

(STONEWALL JACKSON.)

1824-1863.

Thomas Jonathan Jackson (1824-1863), "Stonewall Jackson," a distinguished Confederate General in the American Civil War, was born in Harrison County, Virginia, 21st of January, 1824, and came of the Scotch-Irish stock to whose hardy virtues the Middle States of America are largely indebted for the pure and resolute virtues of their people. His early education was only such as could be furnished by an obscure country school. Thence he passed to West Point Military Academy, where, though he was at first impeded by his meagre acquirements, his indomitable courage and conscientious diligence eventually raised him to a foremost place. At West Point he exhibited the qualities by which he was distinguished in the splendor of his career—courage, patience, constancy of purpose, inflexible fidelity to duty, and an artless simplicity of character which engaged instant and universal confidence. Graduating at twenty-two, he was appointed Lieutenant of Artillery in the army of the United States, and participated with distinction in several of the most important battles in Mexico. After the war he resigned his commission and accepted the professorship of natural philosophy in the Virginia Military Institute at Lexington, a position which he held until the outbreak of hostilities between the Union and the Confederate States. During his sojourn at Lexington he entered the Presbyterian communion, and was re-

markable ever after for the fervor of his religious devotion. In political discussions or agitations, Major Jackson—such was his title by brevet—had never engaged; but in principle and by profession he was a State-right Democrat of the Virginia school. In other words, he maintained the legitimacy of negro slavery and the sovereign right of a State to withdraw from the Union, and therefore to the secession movement of 1861 he at once accorded his sympathy. On the organization of the Virginia troops he was commissioned Colonel of Infantry by Governor Letcher, who, long intimate with him, adequately appreciated his yet undisclosed military genius.

Jackson's first exploit in the war of secession was the capture on May 3, 1861, of the Federal arsenal at Harper's Ferry. Soon afterward he received the command of a brigade—the brigade which by its immovable fortitude at Bull Run turned the tide of battle in that long-doubtful struggle, and from the admiration of its comrades extorted for itself and its chief the now historic name of "Stonewall."

Detached from the army at Manassas for separate service in the Shenandoah Valley, Jackson soon signalized his genius for war. Placing himself between the converging columns of Shields, Milroy and Banks, he struck one after the other, and with a force inferior to his adversaries separately, he eventually drove them back upon Washington in utter defeat. In this "campaign of the valley" Jackson displayed true military instinct and the highest military art. By vigilance, sagacity, celerity and secrecy of movement, and faultless, tactful skill on the field of battle, he achieved the greatest possible results with the smallest possible means. His reputation was now fixed in the estimation alike of friend and foe; and, while the Confederate States were filled with the renown of his achievements, the Federal forces were in constant terror of his prowess. Having stayed the invasion of Virginia along the line of the valley, Jackson

repaired to Richmond to concert with Lee the deliverance of the Confederate capital, then closely pressed by McClellan. Appointed meanwhile to the command of a corps he suddenly revealed himself on the right flank of the Federal army at Mechanicsville, and in a series of desperately fought engagements he routed the besieging army and drove McClellan to shelter at Harrison's Landing. Richmond relieved, Jackson, without pause, hastened to confront Pope, who was menacing the city from the north. In the battle of Cedar Run he inflicted signal defeat upon that General and compelled him to retrace his steps across the Rappahannock.

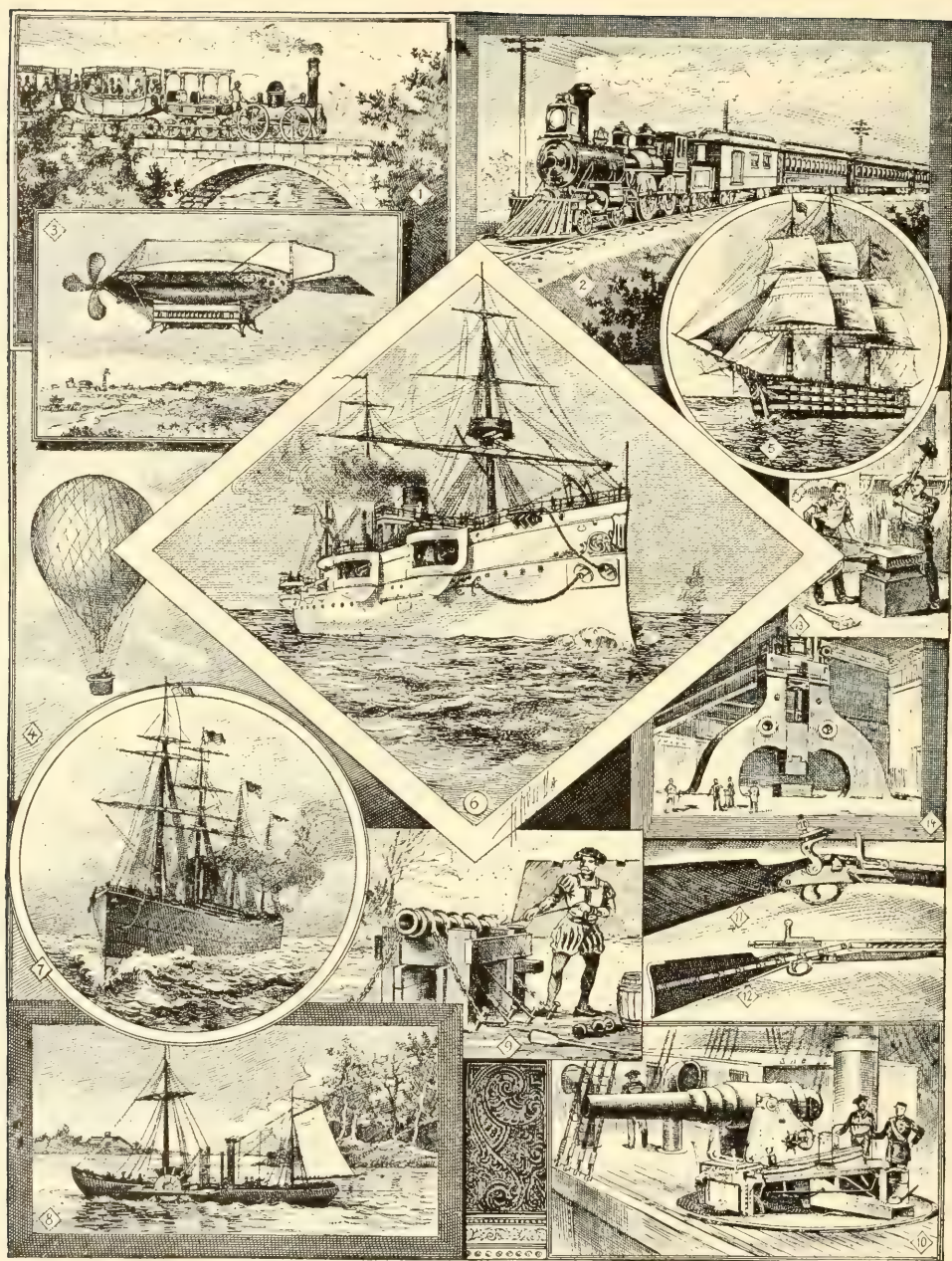
Reinforced by McClellan's army and fresh troops from the Northern States, Pope made a stand at Manassas, but in the second battle on that field he suffered an overthrow as decisive as that sustained by McDowell in the first fight at Bull Run. As usual, Jackson's corps bore the brunt of the battle, and, as usual, to his skill and courage the Confederate army was mainly indebted for its successes. Following up the victory by the invasion of Maryland, Lee detached Jackson for an attack on Harper's Ferry, again in the hands of the Federalists, and garrisoned by 12,000 troops. In a few days the surrender of the place, with all its force and munitions of war, was announced to Lee, who, slowly retiring before McClellan, anxiously expected the arrival of Jackson, that he might turn and crush his pursuer. But before he could effect the desired junction Lee was brought to bay at Antietam and compelled to accept battle under every disadvantage. Jackson now arrived, however, with two of his divisions, and his presence not only averted an otherwise inevitable disaster, but rescued the Confederate army from the destruction which awaited it if defeated with its rear resting on the river. Henceforth Jackson's operations were under the immediate eye and command of Lee, and while at Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville his gallantry was as conspicuous as ever; to his illustrious chief

belongs the glory of those hard-fought fields.

On the afternoon of May 2, 1863, Jackson fought his last battle. Executing a plan of his own conception, he suddenly struck the flank of the 11th Federal corps and drove it pellmell before him. Night fell with the hostile forces in close proximity; and, while Jackson was making a reconnaissance with a view to pressing the pursuit, he was fired on in the dark by men of his own command, and received wounds of which he died on May 10, 1863. His death smote the Confederates with a pang of unspeakable anguish. The fall of their foremost chieftain was bewailed as the omen of the fall of the party.

In deportment Jackson was grave and measured; but he relaxed on approach and his address was bland and

gracious. In conversation he conveyed the impression of a frank, firm character and of an intellect clear and direct, but in no wise of superior order. No opinion floated languidly in his understanding; he held all his beliefs with an intense earnestness of conviction, and he was prompt and resolute in carrying his convictions into action. He engaged in the war of secession with an unfaltering faith in the justice of the cause and an unhesitating persuasion of its triumph. He was the idol of his troops. At his command they would cheerfully endure any sacrifice or confront any peril. On the field of battle he was never known to lose his self-possession, or to be surprised by any fluctuation of fortune; his quick eye would detect the exigent moment, and his unerring judgment direct the decisive maneuver.



NEW INVENTIONS CONTRASTED WITH THE OLD.

1.—The first passenger train. 2.—The fast express. 3.—The coming airship. 4.—Balloon. 5.—Three-deck wooden warship. 6.—The latest iron-clad. 7.—A passenger steamer. 8.—Fulton's first steamboat. 9.—Wooden cannon of the 15th century. 10.—Modern gun that throws a 400-pound projectile twelve miles. 11.—Flint-lock rifle. 12.—Sectional view of magazine rifle. 13.—The anvil and sledge. 14.—The steam trip-hammer.

GEOGRAPHY
AND
ACHIEVEMENTS

BOOK III

GEOGRAPHY AND ACHIEVEMENTS

THE EARTH, THE SUN, THE MOON
THE PLANETS

THE EARTH.

To a spectator so placed as to have an unobstructed view all round, the earth appears a circular plain, on whose circumference the vault of heaven seems to rest. Accordingly, in ancient times, even philosophers long looked upon the earth as a flat disc swimming upon the water. But many appearances were soon observed to be at variance with this idea, and even in antiquity, the spherical form of the earth began to be suspected by individuals. It is only by assuming the earth to be spherical, that we can explain how our circle of vision becomes wider as our position is more elevated; and how the tops of towers, mountains, masts of ships, and the like come first into view as we approach them. There are many other proofs that the earth is a globe. Thus, as we advance from the poles towards the equator, new stars, formerly invisible, come gradually into view; the shadow of the earth upon the moon during an eclipse is always round; the same momentary appearance in the heavens is seen at different hours of the day in different places on the earth's surface; and lastly, the earth, since 1519, has been circumnavigated innumerable times. The objection to this view that readily arises from our unthinking impressions of up and down, which immediately suggests the picture of the inhabitants of the opposite side of the earth—our *antipodes*—with their heads downwards, is easily got over by considering that on all parts of the earth's surface, *down* is towards the earth's center.

It is not, however, strictly true that the earth is a sphere; it is slightly flattened or compressed at two opposite points—the poles—as has been proved by actual measurement of degrees of latitude, and by observations of the pendulum. It is found that a degree of a meridian is not everywhere of the same length as it would be if the earth were a perfect sphere, but increases from the equator to the poles; from which it is rightly inferred that the earth is flattened there. A pendulum, again, of a given length is found to move faster when carried towards the poles, and slower when carried towards the equator, which shows that the force of gravity is less at the equator than at the poles, or, in other words, that the center, the seat of gravity, is more distant at the former than at the latter. The diminished force of gravity at the equator has, it is true, another cause, namely, the centrifugal force arising from the rotation of the earth, which acts counter to gravitation, and is necessarily greatest at the equator, and gradually lessens as we move northwards or southwards, till at the poles it is nothing. But the diminution of the force of gravity at the equator arising from the centrifugal force amounts to only 1,289 of the whole force; while the diminution indicated by the pendulum is 1-194. The difference, or 1-580 nearly, remains assignable to the greater distance of the surface from the center at the equator than at the poles.

We have now seen that the earth is a sphere slightly flattened at its poles—what is called by geometers an ellip-

tical spheroid—of a mean radius of somewhat less than four thousand miles. We have next to consider its mass and density. Nothing astonishes the young student more than the idea of weighing the earth; but there are several ways of doing it; and unless we could do it, we never could know its density. (1.) The first method is by observing how much the attraction of a mountain deflects a plummet from the vertical line. This being observed, if we can ascertain the actual weight of the mountain, we can calculate that of the earth. In this way, Dr. Maskelyne, in the years of 1774-1776, by experiments at Schiallion, in Perthshire, a large mountain mass lying east and west, and steep on both sides—calculated the earth's mean density to be five times greater than that of water. The observed deflection of the plummet in these experiments was between four to five inches. (2.) In the method just described, there must always be uncertainty, however accurate the observations, in regard to the mass or weight of the mountain. The method known as *Cavendish's experiment* is much freer from liability to error. This experiment was first made by Henry Cavendish on the suggestion of Michel, and has since been repeated by Reich of Freyberg, and Mr. Francis Baily. The apparatus used by Mr. Baily was two small balls at the extremities of a fine rod suspended by a wire, and their position carefully observed by the aid of a telescope. Large balls of lead, placed on a turning-frame, are then brought near them in such a way that they can affect them only by the force of their attraction. On the large balls being so placed, the small ones move towards them through a small space, which is carefully measured. The position of the large balls is then reversed, and the change of position of the small balls is again observed. Many observations are made, till the exact amount of the deviation of the small balls is ascertained beyond doubt. Then by calculation the amount of attraction of the large balls to produce this deviation is easily obtained. Having reached

this, the next question is, what would their attraction be if they were as large as the earth? This is easily answered, and hence, as we know the attractive force of the earth, we can at once compare its mean density with that of lead. Mr. Baily's experiments lead to the result that the earth's mean density is 5.67 times that of water. (3.) A third mode has lately been adopted by the Astronomer-royal, by comparison of two invariable pendulums, one at the earth's surface, the other at the bottom of a pit at Harton Colliery, near Newcastle, one thousand two hundred and fifty feet below the surface. The density of the earth, as ascertained from this experiment, is between six and seven times that of water; but for various reasons this result is not to be accepted as against that of the Cavendish experiment, and it is said that the Astronomer-royal was himself dissatisfied with it, and meant to repeat the experiment with new precautions. The density of the earth being known, its mass is easily calculated, and made a unit of mass for measuring that of the other bodies in the system. It is found that the mass of the earth compared with that of the sun is .0000028173.

The earth, as a member of the solar system, moves along with the other planets round the sun from west to east. This is contrary to our sensible impressions, according to which the sun seems to move round the earth; and it was not till a few centuries ago that men were able to get over this illusion. This journey round the sun is performed in about three hundred and sixty-five and a quarter days, which we call a year (solar year). The earth's path or orbit is not strictly a circle, but an ellipse of small eccentricity, in one of the foci of which is the sun. It follows that the earth is not equally distant from the sun at all times of the year; it is nearest or in perihelion, at the beginning of the year, or when the northern hemisphere has winter; and at its greatest distance, or aphelion, about the middle of the year, or during the summer of the northern hemisphere. The difference of distance, however, is

comparatively too small to exercise any perceptible influence on the heat derived from the sun, and the variation of the seasons has a quite different cause. The least distance of the sun from the earth is over ninety-four millions of miles, and the greatest over ninety-six millions; the mean distance is commonly stated at ninety-five millions. If the mean distance be taken as unity, then the greatest and least are respectively represented by 1.01679 and 0.98321. It follows that the earth yearly describes a path of upwards of five hundred and ninety-six millions of miles, so that its velocity in its orbit is about ninety-nine thousand feet or nineteen miles in a second.

Besides its annual motion round the sun the earth has a daily motion or rotation on its axis, or shorter diameter, which is performed from west to east, and occupies exactly twenty-three hours, fifty-six minutes, four seconds of mean time. On this motion depend the rising and setting of the sun, or the vicissitudes of day and night. The relative lengths of day and night depend upon the angle formed by the earth's axis with the plane of its orbit. If the axis were perpendicular to the plane of the orbit, day and night would be equal during the whole year over all the earth, and there would be no change of seasons; but the axis makes with the orbit an angle of $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, and the consequence of this is all that variety of seasons and of climates that we find on the earth's surface; for it is only for a small strip (theoretically, for a mere line) lying under the equator that the days and nights are equal all the year; at all other places, this equality only occurs on the two days in each year when the sun seems to pass through the celestial equator, *i. e.*, about the 21st of March and 23d of September. From March 21, the sun departs from the equator towards the north, till, about June 21, he has reached a north declination of $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, when he again approaches the equator, which he reaches about September 23. He then advances southward, and about December 21 has reached a south declination of $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$,

when he turns once more towards the equator, at which he arrives March 21. The 21st of June is the longest day in the northern hemisphere, and the shortest in the southern; with the 21st of December it is the reverse.

The velocity of the earth's rotation on its axis evidently increases gradually from the poles to the equator, where it is about equal to that of a musket-ball, being at the rate of twenty-four thousand eight hundred and forty miles a day, or about one thousand four hundred and forty feet in a second.

A direct proof of the rotation of the earth is furnished by its compression at the poles. There are indubitable indications that the earth was originally fluid, or at least soft; and in that condition it must have assumed the spherical shape. The only cause, then, that can be assigned for the fact that it has not done so, is its rotation on its axis. Calculation also shows that the amount of compression which the earth actually has, corresponds exactly to what its known velocity and mass must have produced. Experiments with the pendulum, too, show a decrease of the force of gravity from the poles toward the equator; and though a part of this decrease is owing to the want of perfect sphericity, the greatest part arises from the centrifugal force caused by the motion of rotation. Another direct proof of the same hypothesis may be drawn from the observation, that bodies dropped from a considerable height deviate towards the east from the vertical line. This fact has been established by the experiments of Benzenberg and others. In former times, it was believed that if the earth actually revolved in the direction of the east, a stone dropped from the top of a tower would fall, not exactly at the foot of the tower, but to the west of it. Now, as experience, it was argued, shows that this is not the case—that the stone, in fact, does fall at the bottom—we have here a proof that the pretended rotation of the earth does not take place. Even Tycho Brahe and Riccioli held this objection to the doc-

trine to be unanswerable. But the facts of the case were just the reverse. Newton, with his wonted clearness of vision, saw that, in consequence of the earth's motion from west to east, bodies descending from a height must decline from the perpendicular, not westward, but eastward; since, by their greater distance from the earth's center, they acquire at the top a greater eastward velocity than the surface of the earth has at the bottom, and retain that velocity during their descent. He therefore proposed that more exact observations should be made to ascertain the fact; but it was not till more than a century afterwards that experiments of sufficient delicacy were made to bring out the expected result satisfactorily. It is difficult to find an elevation sufficiently great for the purpose, as several hundred feet give merely a slight deviation, which it requires great accuracy to observe. If a height of ten thousand feet could be made available, the deviation would be not less than seven and one-half feet. The analogy of our earth to the other planets may also be adduced, the rotation of which with the exception of the smallest and the most distant is distinctly discernible. Finally, an additional proof of the earth's rotation was lately given by Leon Foucault's striking experiment with the pendulum. The principle of the experiment is this: That a pendulum once set in motion, and swinging freely, continues to swing in the same plane, while at any place at a distance from the equator the plane of the meridian continues to change its position relative to this fixed plane. The objection taken to the doctrine of rotation from the fact that we are unconscious of any motion, has little weight. The movement of a vessel in smooth water is not felt, though far less uniform than that of the earth; and as the atmosphere accompanies the earth in its motion, there is no feeling of cutting through it to break the illusion of rest.

If the turning of the earth on its axis is thus proved to be the cause of the apparent daily motion of the heav-

ens, it is an easy step to consider the annual motion of the sun through the constellations of the zodiac as also apparent, and arising from a revolution of the earth about the sun in the same direction of west to east. If we consider that the mass of the sun is about three hundred and fifty-nine thousand times greater than that of the earth, and that by the laws of mechanics, two bodies that revolve round each other, must revolve about their common center of gravity, the idea of the sun revolving about the earth is seen to be simply impossible. The common center of gravity of the two bodies being distant from the center of each inversely as their respective masses, is calculated to be only two hundred and sixty-seven miles from the center of the sun, and therefore far within his body, which has a diameter of eight hundred and eighty-two thousand miles. But by help of a figure, it is easy to show that the apparent motion of the sun on the ecliptic naturally arises from a motion of the earth about the sun. The motions of the planets also, that appear so complicated and irregular as seen by us, can only be satisfactorily explained by assuming that they too revolve round the sun in the same direction as the earth.

That the interior of the earth is the seat of intense heat is a familiar truth. Volcanic phenomena give us ocular demonstration of it. Mining experiences, moreover, have furnished us with an almost uniform rate at which the heat increases, and this is generally computed to be about one degree Fahrenheit for every fifty-five feet of descent. But mining experiences are necessarily very limited. The deepest mine in England, that of the Rosebridge colliery, near Wigan, takes us down only two thousand four hundred and forty-five feet, and to a temperature not much exceeding ninety degrees Fahrenheit. It is hot enough to make the work exceedingly trying to the miners, but that is all. This, however, is (so to speak) scarcely traversing the earth's epidermis. But if we may assume a uniform increase of heat in de-

scending, the temperature at a depth of fifty miles may be expressed in figures as four thousand eight hundred degrees Fahrenheit. In other words, at less than an eighth of the distance which lies between the circumference of the earth and its center, the heat would be about twenty-two times the heat of boiling water at the sea level. Proportionate figures might, of course, express the heat at greater depths still, but figures fail to convey any idea to the mind of that which must necessarily transcend all imagination. Suffice it so say that in a descending series we must eventually come to a heat so great that no substance with which we are acquainted could, under any conditions which we can imagine, exist in it in either solid or fluid form. And we conclude, therefore, that if the earth's center be not itself in a gaseous condition (and there is reason to think that it may not be so) there must be a gaseous zone somewhere between a solid center and a solid circumference. Nor can the all-powerful imagination accomplish the descent with any approach to ease. The distance we may suppose to be nearly four thousand three hundred miles; but along a line of this length connecting the surface of the earth with its center, we may safely assume that conditions would vary greatly, and (since heat and pressure have to be balanced one against the other) probably by no means uniformly. We can measure the power of pressure upon the surface, but in the nether depths its power is in part open to conjecture, nor can we say how soon we may reach a debatable zone, at which the expansiveness of heat may overcome the compressive force of gravitation. Nor, again, could we venture to expect to find that zone itself always at a uniform depth. Here and there it seems to approach the surface. The volcano is nature's safety-valve, and the cavernous rumbles of the earthquake warn us that there are imprisoned gases beneath our feet, which pressure but imperfectly prevents from escaping. Upon other grounds, also, it is quite evident that our experience,

limited as it is to the surface of the earth, may tend to mislead us in regard to what lies beneath the surface; for, if pressure increased uniformly with depth, the average density of the earth would be much greater than what, upon astronomical data, we know it to be. The earth as a whole, is about five and a half times as heavy as it would be if it were entirely composed of water; or, technically expressed, the density of water is one, and the mean density of the globe is five and a half. But five and a half is only about double the density of rock matter upon the surface; whereas, if nothing but steadily increasing pressure be supposed, it would vastly exceed this. There is, therefore, only one possible explanation. Heat, intense heat, somewhere or other, overcomes pressure and converts everything into gas; and if it were in our power to try experiments, and to feed the subterranean crucible with the most intractable substance—asbestos, fire-proof safes, or what we will—all would there share the same fate—instant evanescence.

THE SUN.

No one probably knows how grand a planet the sun is. Its size cannot be conceived. But let us weigh it and get some idea of its great dimensions. Put the sun and earth in the scales and add the planet Jupiter to the latter and the sun would weigh more, and yet Jupiter weighs three times as much as all the other planets put together. We will then throw all the other planets in the scale with the earth, and yet the sun will not move. Aladdin's wonderful lamp would not make the sun budge. Don't let us give it up, however, but throw in one hundred thousand globes and then altogether we will have three hundred thousand globes, but still the sun would not budge. We'll add thirty thousand more worlds and the sun then moves until it just balances the enormous weight of three hundred and thirty thousand worlds. By this it will be seen that the attractive power of the sun must be very

great to keep such an enormous mass in control. The earth weighs six sextillions of tons. If a man possessed the same number of dollars and began counting them out at the rate of ten dollars a minute, the time which would have elapsed since the time of Adam and Eve, nearly six thousand years, would be a mere incident in comparison to the period during which the calculation would have to continue. The weight of the earth is so great that it is flying through the air only controlled by the laws of gravitation. The velocity of this globe is so great that it goes through space at the rate of eighteen miles a second. The distance of the sun from the earth is estimated at about ninety-five millions miles, and yet it is held secure by the resistless arms of gravitation. The earth cannot get away, for the sun holds it in its power. Look at Jupiter, the gigantic; it is fifteen times larger than the earth, and yet the sun holds Jupiter. The planets are the slaves of the sun, which by the wonderful power of gravitation holds everything in the power of the great orbit. The sun is the source of all life, and the heat from it is so great that we are able to live only on account of it. If the sun was to lose its heat for one month, the earth would die. During the past three years the surface of the sun has been covered with spots, commonly called "sun spots." They have been so large in some instances that they have been seen without the aid of a telescope. Some of these spots are larger than the earth. They appear on the surface like holes into which streams of molten metal seemed to continually pour. The sun is simply a ball of gases, and the matter found in it is composed of iron, gold and silver, copper and granite. Indeed these substances are so great that they would make three hundred thousand globes like that in which we live and work. The spots are like vapors, which appear and disappear at times. Last year the sun was full of these spots. It has been noticed that they appear about once in every eleven years. The cavity is so enormous in some of the

spots that the earth could be dropped into it and disappear like a billiard ball. On the 16th of April, 1882, these spots were watched and it was found that the surface of the great body was changing in a most wonderful manner. They gave a terror to the scene. Just as the sun disappeared below the horizon it was noticed that a pale green arch of light appeared above the horizon, just over the point where the sun had gone down. This was followed in time by bright streams of light shooting up to the zenith, after which the aurora borealis was visible in the sky. There was no sound, and the flaming heavens were as silent as death. It was a pantomime played by ghosts of fire. Attention was then called to the corona of the sun. It appeared to be a shell of scarlet fire, and was only to be seen at a total eclipse; but it had lately been seen by aid of powerful telescopes in the daylight. The sun is a globe of matter heated to a gaseous condition. The sheet of scarlet fire is supposed to have been caused by long ago and constant eruptions, sending up showers of red flames and heat from the inside of the sun. The sun will doubtless die in the course of the next ten million years. We will wait till that time and see what happens. It is now going through a process of cooling. All life would cease throughout the solar system and the earth would be lighted only by the stars. At present an envelope or crust is being seen on the edge of the great orbit of day. This will in time cover the entire surface and then the radiant splendors of the sun will be invisible.

THE MOON

The moon is a satellite of the earth, around which it revolves from west to east in a period of one month, and in consequence accompanying the earth in its motion round the sun. As the moon, to an observer on the earth, advances more than 13° to the east daily, whilst the corresponding advance of the sun is barely 1° , her progress among the stars is much more notable than that of the latter. This rapid angular motion, the continued and

regular variation of her illuminated surface, and her large apparent size (being nearly equal to that of the sun), have rendered the moon an object of general interest; while her importance as the principal nocturnal substitute for the sun, and her special value to navigators and geographers in the determination of longitudes, have rendered the *lunar theory* the object of the most thorough and careful investigation.

The first peculiarity about the moon that strikes a casual observer, is the constant and regular change of her illuminated surface from a thin crescent to a circle, and *vice versa*, and a corresponding change in the time of her appearance above the horizon. These changes depend upon the position of the moon relative to the earth and the sun, for it is only the half of the moon facing the sun that is illuminated by his rays, and the whole of this illuminated portion can only be seen from the earth when the sun, earth and moon are in a straight line (*the line of syzygies*), and the earth is between the sun and moon. When the moon is in the line of syzygies, but between the earth and the sun, no part of her illuminated disc can be seen from the earth. In the former case, the moon is said to be *full*, and in the latter, *new*. A few hours after the "new moon," the moon appears a little to the east of the sun as a thin crescent, with the horns pointing toward the *east*, and as she increases her angular distance from the sun at the rate of about 12° daily, the crescent of light becomes broader, till, after the lapse of a little more than seven days, at which time she is 90° in advance of the sun, she presents the appearance of a semi-circle of light. The moon is then said to have completed her *first quarter*. Continuing her course, she becomes "gibbous;" and at the fifteenth or sixteenth day from new moon, attains a position 180° in advance of the sun, and now presents the appearance known as *full moon*. From this point she begins to approach the sun, again appearing gibbous, and after a third period of more than seven days,

reaches a point 90° west of him, and enters her *last quarter*. Here, again, she appears as a semi-circle of light, the illuminated portion being that which was not illuminated at the end of the *first quarter*. The moon now rapidly approaching the sun, resumes the crescent form, but this time with horns pointing *westward*, the crescent becoming thinner and thinner, till the moon reaches the position of new moon, and disappears. From "full moon" to "new moon," the moon is said to be *waning*; and from "new moon" to "full moon," *waxing*. The earth as seen from the moon presents similar phases, and has, consequently, at the time of new moon, the appearance of a round illuminated disc, and at full moon, is invisible. This explains the peculiar phenomenon occasionally observed when the moon is near the sun (either before or after new moon), of the part of the moon's face which is unilluminated by the sun appearing faintly visible, owing to the reflection upon it of strong earth-light. This phenomenon is designated by the Scottish peasantry as "the new mune wi' the auld mune in her airms." At new moon the moon of course comes above the horizon about the same time as the sun, and sets with him, but rises each day about fifty minutes later than on the day previous, and at the end of the first quarter, rises at midday, and sets at midnight, continuing to lag behind the sun. When at the full, she rises about sunset, and sets about sunrise, and at the commencement of her last quarter, she rises at midnight and set at midday. From repeated observations of the moon's horizontal *parallax*, and of the occultation by her of the fixed stars, her mean distance from the earth has been estimated at 237,600 miles, and as her angular diameter averages 31 minutes 26 seconds, her actual diameter is 2,153 miles, or a little less than three-fifths of the earth's diameter. Her volume is, therefore, about 1-49th of that of the earth, and her destiny being only .577 (that of the earth being taken as unity), her mass is only 1-88th of the earth's mass; consequently, the force of gravity at her

surface is so much less than it is at the surface of the earth, that a body which weighs one thousand pounds here, would at the moon weigh only one hundred and sixty-three pounds.

The moon revolves round the earth in an elliptic orbit, with the earth in the focus; the eccentricity of the ellipse being equal to .05491 or half its major axis or more than three and one-quarter times that of the earth's orbit. The plane of her orbit does not coincide with the ecliptic, but is inclined to it at an angle of $5^{\circ} 8' 47.9''$, and intersects it in two opposite points, which are called the *Nodes*. The point at which the moon is nearest to the earth is called her *perigee*, and that at which she is farthest from it her *apogee*, and the line joining these two points is called the *line of apsides*. Were the moon's orbit a true ellipse, which, owing to various irregularities known as *perturbations*, it is not, the *lunar theory* would be exceedingly simple; but these perturbations, which, in the case of the planets, produce a sensible variation in their orbit only after many revolutions, cause, in the case of the moon, a distinct and well-marked deviation from her previous course in a single revolution. The retrogradation of her nodes along the elliptic causes a continual change in the plane of her orbit, so that if, during one revolution around the earth, she occults certain stars, at the next revolution she will pass to one side of them, and will remove farther and farther from them in each successive revolution. A little consideration will show that by this continual change of her orbit, the moon will, in course of time, pass over or occult every star situated within $5^{\circ} 24' 30''$ of the ecliptic. The motion of the nodes is so rapid that they perform a complete circuit of the orbit in 6793.39 mean solar days, or 18.6 years. Another important change in the moon's orbit is the revolution of the line of apsides, by which the perigee and apogee are continually changing their position relative to the earth and sun. This revolution is more than twice as rapid as that of the nodes, being performed in

3232.57 mean solar days, or 8.85 solar years.

The moon, like all other satellites, as far as at present known, revolves round her own axis in precisely the same time that she revolves round the earth; she thus presents always the same face to us, and consequently, though her comparative proximity has enabled us to become better acquainted with her surface than with that of any other heavenly body, our knowledge is confined to one-half of her surface, with the slight exception of the knowledge obtained from her libration. To the inhabitants of the side of the moon next the earth—if the moon had inhabitants, which is very improbable—the latter would appear as a luminary about 2° in diameter, immovably fixed in their sky, or at least changing its position only to the extent due to the moon's libration. The earth would thus seem to them to have a disc about fifteen times larger than that of the sun.

The surface of the moon, as seen from the earth, presents a most irregular grouping of light and shade. The dark portions were named by the earlier astronomers as seas, lakes, etc., and still retain these names, although there is strong evidence against the supposition that the moon, or at least that portion of it presented to us, contains any water. The brighter parts of the moon are mountains, as is proved by the fact of their casting shadows when the sun's rays fall upon them obliquely, and also by the ragged appearance presented by the interior illuminated border of the moon, an appearance which can only be satisfactorily accounted for on the supposition that the surface of the moon is not level, in which case the higher portions will be illuminated some time before the light reaches the level parts; and it is observed that as the illumination proceeds, bright spots start up in advance of it, and when the moon is on the wane, these same spots continue to shine for some time after the surrounding surface is immersed in gloom. The mountains occur either singly, when

they are generally of a circular form, and are called *craters*, or in groups, which are mostly annular, and form a sort of wall enclosing a deep depression or plain, in which are situated one or more conical mountains. The craters are not unfrequently eight or ten miles in diameter, and some of the walled plains measure more than one hundred miles across. The principal mountain range is the Appenines, which crosses the surface from northeast to southwest, and attains, according to some authorities, an altitude of about twenty thousand feet, though Sir John Herschel gives about two miles as the probable limit of elevation above the moon's surface. The heights are estimated from a micrometric measurement of the length of their shadows, a method not, in this case, susceptible of much accuracy. The moon everywhere presents traces of volcanic agency, but no active volcanoes have yet been discovered, nor is there any sign of recent volcanic action. Seen through the telescope she presents a bleak, desolate appearance, without indications of animal or vegetable existence. She appears to be devoid of an atmosphere, or if one exists, it must be of exceeding rarity.

The influence of the moon in causing *tides* has long been well known, and there is some reason for supposing that she produces a similar effect on the atmosphere, combining with other causes in the generation of winds. Those winds which prevail about the time of new and full moon, and at the vernal and autumnal equinoxes, are particularly ascribed to her influence. On the supposition that the moon might also affect organic nature, experiments were instituted by Mead, Hoffman and others; but no certain results were attained. The periodicity which has often been noticed in certain diseases, especially in insanity (hence called *lunacy*), was long supposed to have some connection with lunar influence, and this opinion is held to some extent at the present day. The chemical effects of the moon's rays are, so far as is at present known, feeble, though in par-

ticular instances they exhibit an *actinism* as powerful as that of the sun. Decomposition of animal matter takes place more rapidly in moonshine than in darkness, and the moon's rays, when concentrated, have a sensible effect on the thermometer.

THE PLANETS.

The planets are those heavenly bodies (including the Earth) which belong to our solar system, and revolve in elliptic orbits round the sun. They are often denominated *primary planets*, to distinguish them from their moons or satellites, which are called *secondary planets*. The name planet is of considerable antiquity, and was applied to these dependants of the sun to distinguish them from the myriads of luminous bodies which stud the sky, and which present to the naked eye no indication of change of place. The planets at present known are, in the order of their distance from the sun, Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, the Planetoids, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus and Neptune. Six of these, Mercury, Venus, the Earth (which was not, however, then reckoned a planet), Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn, were known to the ancients; Uranus was discovered by Sir William Herschel in 1781; and Neptune, after having its position and elements determined theoretically by Leverrier and Adams, was discovered by M. Challis, and afterwards by Dr. Galle, in 1846. The Planetoids, of which more than two hundred and twenty are now known, have all been discovered during the last century. Six of the planets, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus and Neptune, are attended by one or more satellites; Uranus (generally), Neptune, almost the whole of the Planetoids, and all the satellites except the Moon, are invisible to the naked eye. The visible planets can be at once distinguished from the fixed stars by their clear, steady light, while the latter have a sparkling or twinkling appearance. The comparative proximity of the planets may be

proved by examining them through a telescope of moderate power, when they appear as round luminous disks, while the fixed stars exhibit no increase of magnitude. The planets, as observed from the Earth, move sometimes from west to east, sometimes from east to west, and for some time remain stationary at the point where progression ends and retrogression commences. This irregularity in their movements was very puzzling to the ancient astronomers, who invented various hypotheses to account for it. The system of Copernicus, by assuming the sun, and not the Earth, as the center of the system, explained with admirable simplicity what seemed before a maze of confusion.

The planetary orbits differ considerably in their degrees of eccentricity, the Planetoids, Mars and Mercury being most, and the larger planets least eccentric. No two planets move exactly in the same plane, though, as a general rule, the planes of the larger planets most nearly coincide with that of the ecliptic. The later are consequently always to be found within a small strip of the heavens extending on both sides of the ecliptic, while the others have a far wider range. According to Kepler's Laws, the nearer the planet is to the sun the shorter is the time of its revolution. The arrangement of the planets in the solar system bears no known relation to their relative size or weight, for though Mercury, Venus and the Earth follow the same order in size and distance from the sun, yet Mars, which is farther from the sun, is much less than either the Earth or Venus, and the Planetoids, which are still farther off, are the least of all. Jupiter, which is next in order, is by far the largest, being about one and one-half times as large as all the others together; and as we proceed farther outwards, the planets become smaller and smaller, Saturn being less than Jupiter, Uranus than Saturn, and Neptune than Uranus.

With reference to their distance from the sun, as compared with that of the Earth, the planets are divided into *su-*

perior and *inferior*; Mercury and Venus are consequently the only "inferior" planets, all the others being "superior." The inferior planets must always be on the same side of the Earth as the sun is, and can never be above the horizon of any place (not in a very high latitude) at midnight; they are always invisible at their superior and inferior conjunctions, except when, at the latter, a *transit* takes place. The superior planets are likewise invisible at conjunction, but when in opposition they are seen with greatest distinctness, being then due south at midnight. The time which elapses from one conjunction to its corresponding conjunction is called the *synodic period* of a planet, and in the case of the inferior planets must always be greater than the true period of revolution.

Mercury, the planet which is nearest the sun, is also, with the exception of the Planetoids, the smallest (being only three times the size of the moon) and performs its revolution round the sun in the shortest time. Its greatest elongation is never more than $28^{\circ} 45'$, and consequently it is never above the horizon more than two hours after sunset, or the same time before sunrise; on this account, and from its small apparent size ($5''$ to $12''$), it is seldom distinctly observable by the naked eye. It shines with a peculiarly vivid white or rose-colored light, and exhibits no spots.

Venus, the next in order of distance and period, is to us the most brilliant of all the planets. Its orbit is more nearly a circle than any of the others, and when at its inferior conjunction, it approaches nearer the Earth than any other planet. Its apparent angular dimensions thence carry from $10''$ at the superior, $70''$ at the inferior conjunction. Its greatest elongation varies from 45° to $47^{\circ} 12'$, and therefore it can never be above the horizon for much more than three hours after sunset, or the same time before sunrise. While moving from the inferior to the superior conjunction, Venus is a *morning star*; and during the other half of its synodic period, an *evening star*.

When this planet is at an elongation of 40° , its brilliancy is greatest, far surpassing that of the other planets, and rendering a minute examination through the telescope impossible. At this period it sometimes becomes visible in the daytime, and after sunset is so bright as to throw a distinct shadow. Astronomers have repeatedly attempted to ascertain the nature and characteristics of its surface, but its brightness so dazzles the eyes as to render the correctness of their observations at best doubtful. From the changes in the position of dusky patches on its surface, which have been frequently noticed, it is concluded that it revolves on its axis, and that its equator is inclined to the plane of its orbit at an angle of 75° ; but many astronomers (Sir John Herschel included) profess to doubt these conclusions. Both Venus and Mercury necessarily exhibit phases like the moon.

The *Earth*, the next planet in order, is described elsewhere; it has a single satellite, the *Moon*.

Mars, the first of the superior planets, is much inferior in size to the two previous, its volume being about one-half of the Earth's, and, after Mercury, its orbit is much more eccentric than those of the other planets. When it is nearest to the Earth (*i. e.*, in opposition), its apparent angular diameter is $30''$; but when farthest from it (*i. e.*, in conjunction), its diameter is not more than $4''$. It shines with a fiery red light, and is a brilliant object in the heavens at midnight when near opposition; when seen through the telescope its surface appears to be covered with irregular blotches, some of dazzling white. The red spots are surmised to be land; the green, water, while the white spots at the poles are with some reason supposed to be snow, since they decrease when most exposed to the sun, and increase under the contrary circumstances. Two small satellites of this planet were discovered in August, 1877.

The Planetoids.—After Mars in order come the *Planetoids*, formerly, but improperly, called Asteroids. They are a numerous group of very small planets situated in the solar system between

Mars and Jupiter. The number now known is two hundred and twenty. They are believed to be fragments of one older planet; their distances from the sun are from 200,000,000 to 300,000,000 miles, and the largest is not over three hundred miles in diameter.

Jupiter, the next in order, is the largest of all the planets, its bulk being more than one thousand four hundred times that of the Earth, though, from its small density, its mass is only three hundred and thirty-eight times more. After Venus it is the brightest of all the planets and the largest in apparent size, its angular diameter varying from $30''$ to $45''$. When looked at through a telescope, it is seen to be considerably flattened at the poles, owing to its rapid revolution on its own axis; and its surface is crossed in a direction parallel to its equator by three or four distinct and strongly marked belts, and a few others of a varying nature. Spots also appear and remain for some time on its surface, by means of which its revolution on its axis has been ascertained. This planet is attended by four satellites, which are easily observable through an ordinary telescope, and which have rendered an immense service in the determination of longitudes at sea, and of the motion and velocity of light. The satellites, which were discovered by Galileo, were proved by Sir William Herschel to revolve on their own axis in the same time they revolve round their primary. The smallest is about the same size as our moon, the others are considerably larger.

Saturn, next in position, is about seven hundred and thirty-five times larger in volume, though only about one hundred times greater in mass than the Earth. Its apparent diameter when in opposition is $18''$, and there is a considerable flattening towards the poles. Its surface is traversed by dusky belts much less distinctly marked than those of Jupiter, owing doubtless in great part to its inferior brightness; its general color is a dull white or yellowish, but the shaded portions, when seen distinctly, are of a glaucous color. The most remarkable peculiarity of Saturn

is its ring, or series of concentric rings, each one parallel and in the same plane with the others and with the planet's equator; the rings are at present supposed to be three in number, the two outermost are bright, like the planet itself, while the innermost is of a purplish color, and is only discernable through a powerful telescope. The rings are not always visible when Saturn is in the "opposite" half of its orbit, for when the plane of the rings is intermediate between that of the Earth's orbit and of the ecliptic, their dark surface is turned toward us, and when the sun is in their plane only the narrow edge is illumined; in both of these cases the ring is invisible from the Earth. Its plane being inclined at an angle of 28° to the ecliptic, we see the two surfaces of the ring alternately for periods of fifteen years at a time; and at the middle of each period, the rings attain their maximum obliquity to the ecliptic, and are then best seen from the Earth. It is hardly necessary to remark that at the end of each period they become invisible. Saturn has also no less than eight satellites, seven of which revolve round it in orbits little removed from the plane of the ring, while the eighth, which is the second in size, is considerably inclined to it. The satellites are all situated outside of the ring, and the largest of them is nearly equal to the planet Mars in size.

Uranus, the next planet in position, was discovered accidentally by the elder Herschel, on March 13, 1781, and was named "the Georgium Sidus" and "Herschel," but these names soon fell into disuse. It is about ninety-six (some astronomers say eighty-two) times greater than the Earth in volume and twenty (according to others, fifteen) times in mass; but though so large, its distance is so much greater in proportion that astronomers have been unable to gain much information concerning it. No spots or belts have hitherto been discovered on its surface, and consequently its time of rotation and the position of its axis are unknown. It is attended by a number of satellites, but so minute do these bodies

appear, that astronomers hitherto have been unable to agree as to their exact number; Sir William Herschel reckoned six, while other astronomers believe in the existence of four, five and eight, respectively. That there are at least four is without doubt.

Neptune is the next and outermost member of the solar system, and, at a distance of nearly 3,000,000,000 miles from the center of the system, slowly performs its revolution around the sun, accomplishing the complete circuit in about 165 solar years. It is about 84 times larger than the Earth, but from its extreme remoteness is of almost inappreciable magnitude when seen through an ordinary telescope. It was the disturbance in the motion of Uranus caused by the attractive force of this planet which led Leverrier and Adams to a calculation of its size and position, on the supposition of its existence; and the directions which were given by the former to Dr. Galle, of Berlin, specifying its exact position in the heavens, led that astronomer to its discovery on September 23, 1846. Mr. Lassell, of Liverpool, has discovered that Neptune is attended by one satellite. The satellites of Uranus and Neptune differ from the other planets, primary and secondary, in the direction of their motion, which is from east to west, and in the case of the former, in planes nearly perpendicular to the ecliptic. Both Uranus and Neptune were observed long before the times of Herschel and Leverrier, but they were always supposed to be stars. Uranus is known to have been observed by Flamsteed between 1690 and 1714, and Neptune by Lalande in 1795.

AGRICULTURE.

The ancient Egyptians attained a proficiency in the pursuit of the art far in advance of anything seen in Europe until the end of the Seventeenth Century, if we except the work of the Saracens in Spain, who revived agriculture, as they did other arts and sciences. The Egyptian inscriptions and frescoes testify to an amazing state of enlighten-

ment among the farmers on the banks of the Nile thousands of years ago. Not only did Egypt produce corn enough for her own teeming population, but she annually exported millions of bushels of breadstuffs. Egyptian cultivators of the soil were familiar with the value of rotation of crops, and adapted their crops to the season and soil. They were expert breeders of poultry, and made a practice of artificial hatching. Their sheep and cattle were admirably cared for, being fed hay during the yearly inundation and pastured in meadows of green clover at other times. Their paintings which illustrate rural affairs show advanced methods of plowing, sowing and harvesting, with well kept farms and farm buildings.

The Saracens and their successors, the Moors, practiced husbandry as an art. To this day remains of their noble works testify to their wonderful system of irrigation and to their enlightened cultivation of the soil. In the rest of Europe numerous wars and the feudal system made agricultural progress scarcely possible. The condition of the masses was such that they had neither the means nor the will to improve their holdings. All that they raised beyond the barest necessities of life was taken by those above them. Rye, barley and oats afforded food and drink. Even the aristocracy of Europe had few edibles other than these and wheat. It is said that until the end of the reign of Henry VIII, there were no salads or edible roots raised in England and that Queen Catherine, if she wished a salad, was obliged to send to Holland or Flanders to get it.

Agriculture partook of the general improvement which resulted from the invention of printing and the revival of learning, but its progress was slow. During the Nineteenth Century more advancement has been made in the practice and science of agriculture than during the whole preceding period of history, although at the beginning of the century the study of agriculture and the improvement of its methods had already received a considerable impetus.

In the United States, in 1862, Con-

gress passed a bill providing for the "endowment, support and maintenance" of colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts in the several States. The course of instruction covers a period of four years. The curriculum is comprehensive, and includes besides language, literature, history and general science, botany, geology, zoology, entomology, horticulture, veterinary science and the various interests associated with theoretical and applied agriculture. As a rule, the tuition is free, so that any student who is able to pay his living expenses may take advantage of the opportunities offered.

The English Parliament in 1889 created a Board of Agriculture, whose duties in many respects resemble those of the Agricultural Department of the United States. Since then experimental farms under the auspices of the Government and the various agricultural colleges are conducted with success. France and Germany have long carried on experiment farms. One of the best Government experiment farms in the world is in Germany, at Mockern, near Leipsic, in Saxony. It was established in 1851.

The Governmental experiment stations in the United States date from the establishment of the agricultural colleges in 1862. Each college endeavored to teach the practice of husbandry as well as the theory. Farms were bought and cultivated under the direction of the colleges. These became experiment stations. Recent legislation has systemized the work of these farms; regular reports are required from them by the Department of Agriculture and copies of such reports are sent to every other such station. There are now one or more experiment stations in each State and Territory of the Union. The Department of Agriculture itself investigates and experiments in both laboratory and farm. Useful information has been collected and recorded on a multitude of subjects, and all of this valuable matter is at the service of every farmer in the land. The commissionership of agriculture was established in 1862. In 1889 it was made

a department of the Government, and its chief became an officer of the Cabinet. The department embraces the weather bureau; also the bureaus of forestry, agricultural chemistry, botany, entomology, pomology, animal industry, vegetable pathology, and of experiment stations. It pays particular attention to overcoming the enemies of crops, both insects and diseases, having sent costly expeditions to foreign lands in order that they might be studied in their native haunts.

The motto of the British Royal Agricultural Society is "Science with Practice." It is typical of the agricultural progress of the century. Science has been applied to farming in innumerable ways. Geologists, chemists, physiologists, statisticians, architects and mechanists have helped the farmer solve his problems. At first the tillers of the soil would have nothing to do with scientific aid, and opposed all innovations. But as capital and skill were brought to bear on farming by wealthy and enlightened cultivators of the soil, wonderful results were obtained; and, gradually, such object lessons had their effect on the masses. At the end of the Eighteenth Century, in England, millions of acres of wastes, commons and open field farms were enclosed and the present system of British farming, by which the land is owned by landlords occupied by tenants, and farmed by laborers, came into general use. Through long misuse or neglect the land had become impoverished and it was necessary to expand much ingenuity and capital on restoring its fertility. Men addressed themselves to the problem with zest. Attention was given to the best methods of draining, manuring, and to the rotation of crops. Farm buildings were better planned and constructed, live stock was improved and better cared for.

The system of thorough drainage and deep plowing introduced by Smith, of Deanston, about 1834, is, with modifications, the one in use to-day. Good drainage has restored the prosperity of clay farms and made them sometimes

more productive than the best naturally drained ones.

Agricultural chemists have made a science of manuring. At the beginning of the century, as a rule, little attention was paid to this necessary part of farming. Half-rotted straw was the usual fertilizer, although many substances have been used to enrich the soil from time immemorial. Until the present day the feeding of plants had not been really understood and manuring had been done almost blindly. Chemistry and geology have demonstrated what is necessary to plant life and what stimulates growth. Besides water, carbonic acid and ammonia, plants feed on certain mineral substances, such as lime, potash, magnesia, soda, sulphate and phosphates. Certain crops exhaust the resources of the soil, and these must then be restored artificially. Davy, Sprengel and Liebig led the way in the study of agricultural chemistry with valuable results. From 1835 onwards the use of nitrate of soda, guano, bones and superphosphate spread. Manufactured guano proved almost as valuable as the natural Peruvian supply. Science has taught the farmer to use for enriching the land many things which were formerly wasted. Almost every vegetable and animal substance, in one state or another, can be used as manure, and properly applied supply the needs of plants. There is to-day no lack of materials and guides to the farmer who would improve and preserve the fertility of the soil. So thoroughly has the science of fertilizing been studied and set forth by competent men that the ignorance and blindness of a century ago seem incredible.

In the United States the farmer has had a virgin soil to deal with. For years he used it wastefully, but of late he is realizing the wisdom of more careful husbandry, especially in the East, where worn out land has testified to the fact that the supplies stored in the soil by nature throughout ages can be exhausted soon by unthrifty use.

Irrigation is not a product of the Nineteenth Century, for it seems to be almost as old as agriculture itself. The irrigation works of Egypt, Babylonia, Assyria and China were built so long ago that no one can name the dates of their construction. Yet irrigation plays an important part in the agriculture of to-day. In India an elaborate system of irrigation works has been built to prevent terrible famines, which cause untold suffering in arid but densely populated sections of that crowded land. In Madras alone 6,000,000 acres are watered. Great Britain has found these irrigation works profitable investments, returning from 6 to 30 per cent. per annum on the money invested, and resulting in annual crops values of millions of pounds. France has blossomed like a garden with her small, well-tilled irrigated farms and her thrifty agricultural population has grown rich. In the western part of the United States hot and arid lands have been made to bear luxuriant vegetation; water has been brought from far under the earth's crust and by means of artesian wells and windmills distributed over the thirsty land. The irrigation of orchards and fruit lands in California has resulted in fruit unrivaled in size and beauty, which, by means of cold storage and refrigerating processes, is sent all over the world.

During the Nineteenth Century much attention has been paid to the breeding of live stock. Great improvements have been made in all breeds of domesticated animals. Not only have individual specimens of high merit been produced, but all over the civilized world there is a much better quality to be found. Contagious diseases, such as pleuropneumonia and rinderpest, have been combatted successfully and by quarantine have been limited to small districts, preventing the spreading of the plague.

Agricultural fairs have done much to improve and encourage the improvement of live stock, as has the fashion of breeding pedigree animals. Among wealthy landowners in England, about the middle of the last century, there was a "pedigree mania," and fabulous

prices were paid for cattle of particular breeds. This drew attention to the good points of the animals and resulted in a general distribution of offshoots from fine stock. Inspired by the success of British stock breeders, Americans imported cattle from the best herds, and the effect upon the cattle in the United States was instantaneous. In 1867 J. O. Sheldon, of Geneva, New York, sold forty head of shorthorns, known as the "Duchess," for \$42,300. In 1873 a single scion of the same family brought \$40,600 at public auction, and an eight months' old calf sold for \$27,000. These extraordinary prices attracted the attention of farmers all over the country to the importance of the selection and breeding of cattle. As often happens, the pupil has distanced the teacher, and the average animal in the herds of the United States is to-day above that of Great Britain. The Jersey was imported in 1850. Having become acclimated and improved in strength, size and quality, she is now one of our best dairy breeds. About 1857 the Holstein-Friesian breed was introduced.

Horses, sheep and pigs also have been much improved during the century. The trotting horse is a product of New England. The Puritans regarded the race course as a snare of the devil and taught their horses to trot instead of to run, little dreaming that the trotting match in years to come would be the cause of gambling like any other trial of speed on the turf. Lady Suffolk made the first trotting record below 2.30 less than sixty years ago. In the United States to-day there are thousands of horses who can trot a mile in less time. The trotting horse affected materially the art of the wagon and carriage builder in the Northern States. Carriage wagons and even agricultural machines have been constructed more and more with regard to lightness and beauty, and it is said that the average farm wagon of New England is prettier and lighter in draft than the carriages used by the nobility and gentry of Europe.

Spanish merino sheep were first imported to the United States in 1809. The extremely high price of wool at this period induced farmers to pay especial attention to the breeding of sheep and the production of wool. In 1812 unwashed wool sold for \$2.50 a pound and merino lambs brought as much as \$1,000 apiece. This was practically the beginning of the enormous sheep industry of the United States.

The American hog is another development of the century. The swine brought from the Old World thrived and multiplied abundantly in the forests of the New World, with their plentiful mast. The Western farmer had only to turn his hogs into the woods in the early spring and herd them with their progeny; at the first approach of winter to fatten for a few weeks on corn before killing. Huge droves of them bred in this way were sent yearly through the Southern States, where the planters bought them as food for their slaves. Since clearing the forests, the enormous corn crops of the West have rendered easy the production of much finer pork, and the American hog, the result of judicious crossing of improved English breeds, is as nearly perfect as possible.

During the three-year drought in the States west of the Mississippi the Kansas hens saved Kansas. That the suffering in that State was far less than that in Nebraska and Iowa was due to the hens. Living on sunflower seed, a plant that required little or no water, they produced their crop of eggs with unfailing regularity, the only crop which was unaffected by the terrible drought.

In the middle of the last century there were not more than half a dozen breeds of poultry in the United States; now there are over one hundred generally distributed through the country. Many inventions have made artificial hatching easy and profitable, and hens go on laying, while chicks are hatched and cared for by machinery. The average number of eggs laid by one hen has been increased, by original methods discovered in the United States, to from

seventy-five to one hundred and seventy-five per annum.

Dairy farming during the last quarter century has grown greatly in Great Britain and her colonies, but the United States has made far more progress in the art. Germany, Denmark and Scandinavia have long paid much attention to dairying, but conducted on a scientific basis, it is a comparatively new departure for the Anglo-Saxon. Dairy schools, literature, exhibitions and societies and new and improved implements have all contributed to progress. In 1877 the centrifugal cream separator was invented by Lefeldt, and, since then, there have been introduced wonderful churns, butter-driers, milk-testers, refrigerators, heaters and cheese-making apparatus. Creameries or butter factories have become common, and almost all of their work is done by machinery, much of which is operated by steam.

Bee culture has undergone marvelous changes during the century of progress and invention. Adjustable hives, extractors and comb foundations are among the aids to raisers of honey.

Agricultural machinery is almost entirely a Nineteenth Century product, and it is American invention which has made the marvelous changes which have lightened the labor of the farmer all over the world. For thousands of years there was but little improvement in agricultural implements. The tools for the cultivation of the soil at the beginning of the century were but little better than those in use in the days of the Pharaohs. Indeed, during the Middle Ages so much that man had formerly possessed or known was forgotten or lost that it is doubtful if the period between the revival of learning and the dawn of the Nineteenth Century had brought things to a state equal to that in Egypt four thousand years ago. In the first half of the Eighteenth Century that agricultural genius, Jethro Tull, applied irons to his plows, but few were the people who followed his excellent example. His own laborers rebelled against his innovations and willfully broke his implements. Early

in the Nineteenth Century the plow used in the United States had a wooden mold board, sometimes covered with sheet iron, while the share was of wrought iron. This was succeeded by the cast iron plow, which has been gradually developed into an efficient machine made of greatly lessened weight and draft and made almost entirely of polished steel. The improved plow of to-day cuts the soil to a depth of several inches and turns it over, exposing it to the air, thus pulverizing and loosening it and fitting it for the reception of seed and for a vigorous and healthy growth of crops. There are plows which free rich soil from stone, plows for making surface drains, mole-plows, which burrow under the surface without turning a furrow, and others for regulating the depth of furrows. There are also plows which cut off a thin slice of land for the purpose of killing weeds, and special plows for use on hill sides. Indeed, so infinite is the variety of modern plows that it is impossible to enumerate them here.

Steam plows seem to have been in general use in England before they were operated to any extent in the United States, but the first cultivation of growing crops by steam was carried on in Louisiana in 1871 on a sugar plantation belonging to Effingham Lawrence.

Axes, scythes, hoes, spades and almost every tool for manual labor on the farm has been vastly improved by American ingenuity, but a greater gain has been the substitution of beast for man in performing farm work and the frequent application of steam to agricultural machinery. In harvesting, first the sickle gave way to the cradle, and then the cradle to the reaper drawn by horses, which is on large farms being superseded by the steam reaper.

In 1822 Henry Ogle, of Alnwick, England, is said to have invented the foundation of the mowing and reaping machines of to-day when he brought forth the finger-bar. His machine was received with angry prejudice by the working people, who threatened to kill its manufacture if it was not withdrawn. In 1826 Rev. Patrick Bell built

a machine which was used for a few years and then discarded. At last, in 1831, Cyrus McCormick, of Virginia, invented a successful grain harvesting machine, built from that day to this. It was first successfully operated on the farm of John Steele, near Steele's Tavern, Virginia. Two years later Obed Hussey built a machine which was much like the McCormick reaper, except that it had no heel and no divider and no platform on which the cut grain could accumulate. Both of these machines were shown in 1851 at the Great Exhibition of the Industry of All Nations in London. Under the auspices of the Royal Agricultural Society of England they were tested in the field, and the "Grand Council Medal" was awarded to the McCormick one, which was referred to by judges as being worth to the people of England "the whole cost of the exposition."

Step by step the reaper was improved. Until 1849 it was used just as it was for cutting grass, as well as for harvesting grain, but in that year A. J. Purviance, of Ohio, obtained patents for inventions which made a more suitable machine for the double use. The list of inventions which made harvesting and mowing machines the perfect automats that they are to-day is a long one. Numerous attachments have been added, and reaping machines now not only cut grain, but gather it and compress it into bundles, holding it while a mechanical binder draws twine around it, fastening it securely and discharging sheaf after sheaf.

The McCormick reaper is to-day used all over the world, harvesting grain in every civilized country, and the French Government decorated its inventor with the Legion of Honor for "having done more for the cause of agriculture than any living man."

Many interesting stories are told of the difficulties with which McCormick had to contend when he was struggling to introduce his machine. The reapers, which he made in a small blacksmith shop on his farm, were taken by team from Rockbridge County, Virginia, across the Blue Ridge, thence by boat

down the James River to Norfolk, shipped from Norfolk to New Orleans, by river to distributing points in Ohio, Illinois and Missouri. He had not the means to manufacture the machines at his own cost, and it was not until he had traveled as an agent among the farmers of the West and obtained orders for his machines in four States that a firm in Cincinnati could be persuaded to undertake their manufacture. Mr. McCormick had still to go with his machines to his customers and, explaining their operation, prove that they would do their work satisfactorily before the buyers would pay for them. He perseveringly continued his toil as agent and instructor until his reapers had won their own way to popularity and needed no booming.

It is estimated that nearly a million harvesting and mowing machines together were used in the fields of the United States during the summer of 1898. Thousands of these machines are exported annually, but their chief beneficiary is the American farmer. It is through their powerful aid that he has cultivated the great grain fields of the West and that he is able to compete with the cheap labor of the Old World.

Less than fifty years ago the square-tooth harrow was universally used, but to-day there is an infinite variety of harrows, clod-mashers and kindred machines. In 1857 Share's harrow appeared. It was followed by the disk harrow, the smoothing harrows, spring-tooth and rotary harrows.

Among the greatest economizers of labor in agricultural machinery are the drills and sowing machines. There are different sorts for different kinds of seed, and they deposit the seed in the ground with more exactness and precision than is possible with the most careful sowing by hand, the drill being adjusted to measure spaces and quantities with unfailing regularity; whether operated by hand, horse or steam, the same result is accomplished with different degrees of speed. Manure distributors take the place of the disagreeable work with cart and shovel, avoiding all danger of unequal distribu-

tion; and there are hoes which can be operated by horse power without injury to the growing crop; turnip-thinners, which automatically thin out the rows where the plants are too thick, leaving tufts growing at the proper distances; haymakers, which enable the farmer to make hay while the sun shines faster than he dreamed of a quarter of a century ago, scattering it so as to expose it to the sun and air, and yet others by means of which the new mown hay can be cured and dried without taking the sun into consideration or caring whether he shines or not. A successful horse-fork appeared in Pennsylvania in 1848. Since then great improvements have been made in hay forking and carrying machinery, so that the farmer is saved the severe labor of pitching the hay to the back of the mow by hand. Hay can be cut, raked, cured, pitched and unloaded by machinery.

As early as 1858, at a show in England, there were exhibited over forty-eight threshing machines, most of which were worked by steam. Experimental threshing machines were made as long ago as the first quarter of the Eighteenth Century, but none that was practical seems to have appeared until in 1786, when Meikle, of Scotland, invented one which contained some of the essential features of those of to-day, so that with many modifications and alterations, of course, the complex modern threshing machine, comprising straw-carriers or elevators, separators and winnowing apparatus, is a direct evolution of it. The threshing machine has been carried to such a state of perfection that it is capable of performing a whole series of operations, from feeding the grain to delivering, stacked or sorted and weighed, the straw, grain and chaff. There are various modifications of the threshing machine, such as cloverhullers, cornshellers and other seed separators. Some threshers are fixtures in barns or mills, but as a rule they are portable.

The cotton gin of to-day does not differ substantially from that invented in 1793 by Eli Whitney.

Eli Whitney, the inventor of the cotton gin, was born at Westborough, Massachusetts, December 8, 1765, and was educated at Yale College, where he paid his expenses partly by school teaching, partly by mechanical labor. Having graduated in 1792, he went to Georgia as a teacher, but finding a generous patron in the widow of General Greene, of the Revolutionary Army, he resided upon her estate and studied law. The cotton culture at this period, especially that of the best kind, the "green seed," was limited by the slow and difficult work of separating the cotton from the seed by hand; but Mrs. Greene told her complaining neighbors that she was sure Whitney could help them out of their trouble, for he could make anything. At their desire, he set to work under great disadvantages, for he had to make his own tools, and even draw his own wire; but the reports of his success prompted some lawless people to break into his workshop and steal his machine and get others made before he could secure a patent. He, however, formed a partnership with a Mr. Miller in 1793, and went to Connecticut to manufacture cotton gins; but the lawsuits in defense of his rights took all his profits, likewise \$50,000 voted him by the State of South Carolina. He afterward amassed a fortune in the manufacture of fire-arms, but received but barren honor from the gin, one of the most important of the whole series of inventions connected with the cotton manufacture. The machinery invented by Mr. Whitney is composed of a hopper, having one side formed of strong parallel wires placed so close together as to exclude the passage of the seeds from within. The cotton is dragged through the apertures by means of circular saws attached to a large roller, and made to revolve between the wires, the seeds sinking to the bottom of the hopper.

Steam has revolutionized many agricultural processes, as it has so many other departments of industry. There are now hundreds of manufacturers who turn out annually thousands of farm-engines. The farm-engine is often stationary, but there are many which

can travel from farm to farm, chief among them being the itinerant threshing machine. Steam and water and wind are all used to supply motive power for numerous operations, such as grinding feed, sawing wood, shelling corn, cutting fodder, churning and pumping.

Agriculture has remained during the century, as in all probability it will for many centuries to come, the chief source of livelihood of the world's workers.

It is only within recent times that the world has awakened to the importance of scientific forestry. In this work the United States has been lag-gard, the vast tracts of timber in this country having been regarded as practically inexhaustible. Yet it is estimated that at the present rate of cutting forest land the United States cannot long meet the demand made upon it. By far the greater part of the white pine has been cut, and vast inroads have been made into the supply of other timbers. The State of New Jersey affords a painful illustration of the waste caused by wanton destruction of forests. Long ago it was "lumbered out," yet 2,750,000 acres, or sixty per cent. of the whole land area, are fit for nothing but growing wood. From a commercial standpoint, as well as because of the effect of trees on climate and waterflow, men have come to see that the preservation of the forests and their replenishing is of importance. The decay of Spain, once the granary of the world, is ascribed by some authorities as due in part to the destruction of the forests, and that sections of Asia no longer "flow with milk and honey" as in Biblical times, but furnish havens for hordes of bandits, is alleged to be due to the same cause.

Forests were disposed of to private individuals in wasteful fashion in Europe until about fifty years ago, when the reaction came. In France, since 1870, no sales have been made, but a policy of increasing forest land has been pursued, and \$40,000,000 has been spent for re-foresting dunes and devastated mountain sides. In Prussia, since 1831,

trees have been planted to take the place of those cut down. Austria began the policy in 1872, and England inaugurated a reserve forestry scheme in India in 1873. In America New York has led, having first instituted a forest commission in 1885, and Maine, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania and Wisconsin have since established special commissions in charge of the enforcement of forestry laws. The President was authorized by act of March 3, 1891, to make public forest reservations, and seventeen such, with an area of 17,500,000 acres, were established in Colorado, New Mexico, California, Arizona, Wyoming, Washington and Oregon previous to 1897. In February 22, 1897, President Cleveland proclaimed thirteen additional reserves, comprising 21,379,000 acres. Since then other reserves have been made.

Arbor Day has been established, and in this way the importance of forestry has been impressed upon the people.

A factor of importance to the farmer and a development of the latter part of the Nineteenth Century is the Weather Bureau, which, established in nearly every civilized country, has resulted in saving millions of dollars worth of farm products, and also has been of great service to mariners, warning them of impending storms and enabling them to save not only their ships, but their lives. The science of meteorology has reached such an advanced stage that it is possible for the forecaster to predict the weather thirty-six hours in advance with dependable accuracy. The popular impression as to the unreliability of the Weather Bureau is due to the fact that the erroneous predictions attract most attention. As a matter of fact, this forecaster is right, as statistics show, in eighty-five cases out of a hundred.

Meteorology, or the science of the weather, is a new study. Of course, rudimentary myths, relating to the weather have been current since the earliest days, and farmers' almanacs are nothing new. The first instance of the principles of natural philosophy being brought to bear on the explanation

of the complex phenomena of the weather was in the publication of Dalton's meteorological essays in 1793. Since then meteorology has become more nearly an exact science, successive discoveries having placed the weather philosophy of the untutored on a scientific basis. Beginning in 1854, meteorological reports were collected and sent out daily by Professor Joseph Henry, of the Smithsonian Institution. This was made possible by the telegraph, and with its expansion the weather service in various nations began to improve. The meteorological department of the English Board of Trade was established by Admiral Fitzroy in 1857.

These services were, however, on a small scale, and were principally for the use of mariners. But with the development of the science it was thought that a wider service might be established. Through the efforts of Dr. I. A. Lapham, of Wisconsin, a resolution officially creating a weather service for the United States was passed, and on November 4, 1870, the first weather bulletins, based on simultaneous observations, were sent out to twenty cities from Washington. The work was put in charge of the Signal Service of the War Department, and Professor Cleveland Abbe originated the present system of weather forecasts. The popularity and success of the predictions and their benefit to the farmer led to the bureau being placed under the direction of the Agricultural Department July 1, 1891. The success of the Weather Bureau under the Agricultural Department has been phenomenal. In his report for 1895 the Secretary of Agriculture declares that warnings of cold waves alone secured from freezing more than \$2,275,000 worth of perishable agricultural products, which otherwise would have been lost. That report has also this to say concerning the Weather Bureau: "The possibilities of usefulness to agriculture, manufacture and commerce are almost without limit in the increasing accuracy and capabilities of the Weather Bureau. The time is not probably far distant when its rec-

ords, warnings and forecasts will be constantly in demand as evidence in the courts of justice and also by those purposing large investments in certain kinds of agricultural crops, in perishable fruits, in commercial ventures, and in manufacturing plants. Weather Bureau forecasts in the not distant future will, no doubt, be consulted and awarded credibility just as thermometers are to-day. The usefulness of the meteorological branch of the service, wisely and economically administered, is beyond computation."

MINING AND METALS.

Seventy per cent. of the total weight of minerals mined is coal. Yet the grimy black substance which we have come to regard as an absolute necessity to our very existence was practically unknown to our forefathers except as an obnoxious and unwelcome substitute for fire-wood. The opening of the last century found the world in comparative ignorance of its industrial value.

In 1239 a charter was granted the freemen of Newcastle, giving them permission to dig and gather coal in the Castle fields, and here the history of coal as a commercial product may be said to have begun. When Newcastle coal was offered for sale in London it was indignantly rejected by the city fathers as an innovation inimical to the health and happiness of the city, and it was not until after much persuasion that permission was given to unload it. In 1300 a proclamation was issued by the King prohibiting its use within the city walls, and imposing a fine upon those who persisted in burning it. The license granted the freemen of Newcastle was revoked, and the coal question was supposed to have been settled forever. During the reign of Edward III the prohibitive law was repealed and the Newcastle freemen were again allowed to dig and gather coals and ship them to London. During the reign of Elizabeth its use was again prohibited in London during the sitting of Parliament, as it was claimed to be injurious to the health of the country

squires during their sojourn in the city. But notwithstanding the many obstacles placed in the course of its progress, the use of coal spread rapidly, and the middle of the Eighteenth Century found it used almost exclusively in the smelting of iron and for other industrial purposes all over England.

Although the early history of coal is thus distinctly linked with the history of England, its later history is common to nearly all the great nations of the world.

The first discovery of coal in America was made at Ottawa, Illinois, as is chronicled by Father Hennepin, a Jesuit explorer, who visited that section in 1679. The first coal mine was excavated near Richmond, Virginia, the discovery having been made by a small boy while fishing on the James River, the bituminous vein being exposed along the shores of the stream. Ten years later the famous strata of bituminous coal was discovered around Pittsburgh, and at the beginning of the Nineteenth Century shipments were made to Philadelphia. Anthracite coal was discovered by a hunter, Nicho Allen, near Wilkesbarre, Pa., in 1792. Like many other important discoveries, it was accidental. Allen encamped one night and built his fire upon some small black stones that lay scattered about in profusion. Having cooked his supper, he went to sleep as usual, and when he awoke in the middle of the night he found himself lying in a bed of flames. The stones were all on fire, and he barely escaped with his life. He told the story of his adventure far and wide, and shortly afterwards a company was organized to mine and ship the black stones to Philadelphia. Colonel Shoemaker, a worthy Colonial gentleman, was at the head of the enterprise, and upon his recommendation most of the first consignment was sold. The people, however, did not understand how to use the coal, and there was a popular feeling of indignation against Colonel Shoemaker, who was denounced by the city authorities as a rascal for having palmed off rocks upon them as coal. Since then

Philadelphia has grown to be a great city largely through the agency of those same black rocks, and the anthracite coal fields of Pennsylvania yield over 70,000,000 tons annually.

It would be hard to estimate the amount of money the United States has made out of coal. One small region in Eastern Pennsylvania produces every year coal to a greater value than all the gold mines of the Rockies, Canada and Alaska. Adding to this the value of our annual production of two hundred and seventy odd million tons of bituminous coal, it can be said safely that we get more than three times as much wealth out of our coal mines as out of our gold mines. The great Appalachian field produces 200,000,000 tons annually. Indiana, Kentucky and Illinois have an immense output. Utah, Montana, Colorado, Washington and Wyoming are also rich in coal deposits, and fields of incalculable value have been in late years discovered in Alaska. There is scarcely a country on earth where coal has not been discovered in greater or less quantities. The following table is the latest estimate of geologists regarding the world's coal producing territory: China, 200,000 square miles; United States, east of the Rockies, 192,000 square miles; Canada, 65,000; India, 35,000; New South Wales, 24,000; Russia, 20,000; United Kingdom, 11,500; Spain, 5,500; Japan, 5,000; France, 2,080; Austria-Hungary, 1,790; Germany, 1,770; Belgium, 510.

Although the English coal area is comparatively small, nevertheless that country was for years the center of the coal production of the world, and for many years mined more than half the total amount used by the world. But her coal production is being gradually overshadowed by that of the United States. The English coal veins are shallow. The Newcastle coal fields, her richest, have veins from three to six feet thick, while the Pennsylvania anthracite veins run from thirty to sixty feet in thickness, and the Pittsburgh bituminous veins from ten to sixteen feet. Some of the English veins are already worked down 3,887 feet, and

at the present rate of mining it is estimated that if it is worked down to 4,000 feet, English coal will be exhausted in about 200 years. It is therefore possible that England's glory as a manufacturing nation must soon be on the wane. It is also self-evident that the United States, with its vast supplies of that mineral, and the magnificent facilities for transportation, already the chief manufacturing nation of the world, is destined to increase its lead enormously. The coal mining systems perfected during the Nineteenth Century, and their equipment of colossal machinery, are among the wonders of the engineering and mechanical world. The modern coal mine of a large scale is really an underground city, with avenues and streets extending for many miles. One of the largest of these subterranean towns is near Newcastle, England, and contains not less than fifty miles of passages, the result of excavations wrought by human hands.

The mode of working the coal mines has undergone a complete revolution. The older process was, after reaching the strata to be operated, to take out as much of the material in stalls as was considered safe. This left a pillar to support the roof of the mine, and thus only a portion of the material was available. In 1816, by the introduction of the Davy Safety lamp, it was rendered possible to work in what were very dangerous circumstances, and less and less wall was left in the form of pillars. This was called the "long wall working," and is the method in use at the present day. The system consists in the excavating first of long roadways through the strata, the superincumbent strata sinking down on the top of the wastes left behind by the miners.

The ventilation of mines had long engrossed the attention of engineers and legislatures. The first radical improvement brought about in this direction occurred in the year 1820, when the workings were divided into distinct portions or panels so as to insure a direct passage of air from the downcast to the upcast shaft. These shafts

are, in reality, very deep wells sunk at either end of the mine. The air from the downcast rushes through the passage and seeks egress by way of the upcast. The draught of air thus created, while it carried away a certain amount of impurities, was insufficient to provide air for inhalation by the army of workers. To accomplish this a large furnace was placed at the foot of the upcast shaft, the intense heat arising from this furnace rarified the column of foul air admitted above it, thus causing it to ascend and make room for the colder air from the downcast shaft. For many years this method was without a rival. Various pumps, fans and pneumatic screws were tried without success. But in 1849 an English mine owner named Powell put into his mine a large centrifugal fan, designed by Brunton. It operated on a vertical axis and was placed at the surface. Although it was a marked improvement on the old furnace system, the new ventilator made slow progress until Guibal introduced another large fan at the London Exhibition. Since then the many advantages to be derived from mechanical means of ventilation at the surface have become more fully recognized, and fans, some of which run at terrific speed, are in use at all modern collieries.

The haulage of coal from the diggings through the devious passages to the foot of the mine shaft is another item in coal mining which has been greatly improved. The use of cast iron tramways dates back to 1767, and about 1820 George Stephenson introduced mechanical haulage underground, although its success was not ultimate until the use of wire ropes became general. Until 1845, or thereabouts, the underground haulage was accomplished chiefly by women and children, who were treated by their overseers as veritable beasts of burden. The passage of the legislative acts about this time compelled proprietors to use ponies and horses underground. For many years chains and ropes were used for mechanical hauling and winding, a practice which entailed great danger—

so much so that the chains had to be abandoned altogether. Until the year 1862 flat hempen ropes were used exclusively. Then Newell brought his metallic wire ropes to such a state of perfection that they were substituted for the hempen ones. Up to the present day the steel rope is without a rival, and it has done much to make mechanical haulage both possible and general. The rope is usually driven by an engine at the surface, but sometimes the engine is placed underground and run by steam or compressed air. The speed of hoisting or winding, as it is termed, compares favorably with that of railway trains. At many of the large mines the coal is lifted a depth of half a mile in less than a minute. Owing to greatly improved appliances in shaft machinery accidents are very rare. In the best regulated coal mines there are automatic appliances, in case of the cage becoming liberated from the rope, to prevent its falling down the shaft again.

The greatest danger to which the coal miner's life is, and always has been, exposed is that which awaits him in the form of explosions of inflammable gases. In the early years of the century these explosions received the attention of all the leading scientists. Until the introduction of Sir Humphrey Davy's safety lamp in 1816, coal mines were tested before the men entered them by "trying the candle"; the presence of the deadly fire-damp being shown by the flame assuming a bluish color, and other gases by various peculiarities in the tint and shape of the flame. Complicated improvements which have since been made on the Davy lamp, together with the introduction of electric light wherever available, have in recent years combined to reduce this danger to a minimum.

Next to coal, iron has been the greatest factor in the phenomenal industrial progress attained by the genius and wisdom of the Nineteenth Century. The history of iron and the manufacture and use of steel are as old as civilization itself. The Chinese were familiar with steel fully 2600 B. C.,

ancient Chinese writings containing descriptions of the processes used in its conversion. The Phœnicians were also acquainted with the use of extremely hardened iron (properly speaking, steel), as their numerous and beautiful works in ornamental metallurgy, and the cutting and engraving of precious stones, for which they were conspicuous among the nations of antiquity, necessarily involved. During the Middle Ages the strength and durability of iron led to its extensive manufacture and use for defensive purposes, and the iron-monger and blacksmith occupied prominent positions among the craftsmen of that darkened period of the world's history.

Crude casts or "Pig" iron is the most widely used metal of modern times, and the most indispensable in the industrial arts, either as the material out of which articles may be formed by the operation of casting, or as the substance from which the purer forms of the metal may be obtained.

The history of the metallurgy of iron and steel during the Nineteenth Century is marked by four epoch-making inventions, beside which all others sink into comparative obscurity. These four inventions, which completely revolutionized the industry to which they were applied are: The hot blast for blast furnaces, invented by James Neilson in 1828, which doubled the output of the blast furnace without any extra fuel; the Bessemer process for the conversion of steel, invented in 1856; the Siemens regenerating furnace in 1862; and the Gilchrist-Thomas or basic process of making steel from iron containing phosphorus, invented in 1880. In following the development of the iron industry it is well to remember that the blast furnace producing cast iron has two offices to perform. It has to reduce the ore to a state of metal, which process is effected in the central and upper part of the furnace by the action of carbon and carbonic monoxide. The reduced metal is then melted, and in this operation it absorbs carbon and becomes cast iron, while the foreign matters of the ore fuse with the coke-

ash and are withdrawn in the form of slag.

The very early iron furnaces did not produce cast iron, unless by accident; they produced a steely wrought iron that did not melt, but had to be picked out of the furnace. This was due to the fact that the furnaces, being very small, used charcoal as fuel, which had great power of reduction, but would not make sufficient heat to melt the iron. In 1828 Neilson conceived the idea of feeding all kinds of furnaces with blasts of hot air. The invention proved a great success and effected a great saving in fuel, with a phenomenal increase in the production of the English furnaces. No further notable improvements were made until 1845, when Budd conceived the idea of utilizing the gas which escaped from the mouth of the furnace by drawing it below and heating the air for the hot blast with it. Soon after this the closed top to the furnace was invented.

With the exception of some special processes, entailing endless toil and great expense, the majority of steel in early days was converted from cast iron by the puddling process. This consisted in melting the cast iron in the form of pigs on the hearth of a reverberatory furnace, in contact with iron cinder and iron ore, accompanied by a constant stirring of the melted metal, or "puddling," as it is termed. After being worked into shape by hammers and rolls it was closed in cases of horn shavings and heated to a high temperature for many hours. When removed from the casting the metal showed a blistered surface, and was called blister steel. Puddling in this fashion necessarily involved a great amount of hard manual labor, and various attempts were made to get rid of it. Many minor inventions were made for the production of steel before the great revolutionary one of Sir Henry Bessemer put in its appearance in 1856. This is regarded one of the greatest inventions the world has ever seen, and has done more than almost anything else to revolutionize industry. Bessemer began his experiments in the production of

steel from pig iron by use of the air blast. Cast iron was melted in a reverberatory furnace, from which it ran into a vessel in whose bottom were a number of blow holes through which a blast of air was maintained. As the hot iron ran into the vessel, and as the blast was forced through it, its carbon and silicon were burned out and such combustion taking place heated the iron to an exceedingly high temperature. It was originally intended to withdraw the metal when the carbon was sufficiently reduced. But this was impracticable, except in rare cases, as the least trace of phosphorus impaired the quality of the steel. The system of blowing the metal to the complete exhaustion of the carbon, and afterwards adding a certain quantity of cast iron, was generally adopted. By varying the proportion of the materials added, it was possible to produce steel of any required percentage of carbon. Shortly after it was introduced into this country, Holley developed a system of hydraulic machinery for the operation of the process. The metal is now treated in an egg-shaped converter, mounted on trunnions, and large enough to treat at once from one to twenty tons of melted iron. It is automatically turned on its side to receive the charge, the blast is turned on and it is brought in an upright position to receive the blow. As the air passes through the melted mass, a vivid flame bursts from its mouth. The carbon and silicon having been burned out, the converter is turned again on its side to receive the carbonizing charge of ferro-manganese or spiegeleisen, and the effect of any trace of phosphorus is partly overcome by the manganese thus added. The steel, which has been reduced to the consistency of water by the intense heat, is poured from the converter into moulds. Under the old steel processes these units were of but a few pounds weight, whereas the Bessemer process converts the steel into units of many tons. But thus far steel could only be made out of very pure iron, the presence of any considerable trace of phosphorus being ruinous. In 1878 Sidney Gilchrist

Thomas announced that he had succeeded in reducing the phosphorus in the Bessemer process by the use of lime. After exhaustive experiments the basic Bessemer process was evolved by Thomas and his cousin, Gilchrist. This process consists in lining the converter with specially made bricks composed largely of lime and magnesia, and in throwing a quantity of lime into the converter before it receives the charge of iron. After the blow is given, there is a period of some minutes of after-blow after the carbon is all gone. The effect of this after-blow in the presence of the basic material is to remove the phosphorus almost entirely. In 1860 Sir William Siemens's regenerative furnace was completed.

The principal peculiarity of this invention is the way in which the heating is effected. The gas from the producer and the air for its combustion are made to pass through chambers of intensely heated fire-brick piled up loosely. Before they leave the furnace the products of combustion pass through two other such chambers. By the manipulation of valves, the course of the gas and air is changed. A sort of cumulative effect is produced by the process, and a most intense heat is developed at the expense of a comparatively small amount of fuel. Applications of the Siemens, or open hearth furnace, to making steel at once became obvious. By the Martin process a steel of any desired percentage of carbon is produced by melting pig iron and wrought iron together on the hearth. The Siemens process produces steel on the open hearth by the melting of pig iron and iron oxide. In the Siemens-Martin process both methods are combined, the product of the operation being the famous open-hearth steel. A description, or even a brief mention of the many valuable modifications and improvements that have been added to these four great epoch-making inventions would necessitate the writing of a volume devoted exclusively to the history of the iron and steel industry.

The discovery of aluminum, the lightest metal known, is probably the most

novel and notable attainment of Nineteenth Century metallurgy. The alchemists of the Middle Ages speculated on the composition of alum, and decided that it must have an earthy base. About 1600 Stahl said this base was similar to lime. In 1724 Fr. Hoffman first announced the correct idea that the base of alum is a substance distinct from all earthy bases. This was demonstrated by Marggraf in 1754, and in 1760 Professor Baron, of Paris, announced that he had tried without success to reduce it to metal. Yet the belief that it would ere long be isolated was so strong that in 1762 this earthy base was named alumine. The discoveries by Lavoiser and Priestly, about 1780, led directly to the idea that alumina is the oxide of a metal that had not been isolated, and during the next forty years all imaginable methods of reducing it were tried without success. In 1824 a Swede named Oersted discovered a method of making from alumina a combination of aluminum with chlorine, the first being an element of clay and the latter of common salt.

In 1827 Frederick Wohler, a German professor, found that metallic potassium had such a strong affinity for chlorine that it would take it from the aluminum chloride and leave the metal free. The aluminum obtained by Wohler was, however, only as a fine powder, which resisted all efforts to make it amalgamate. The trouble was to find an element with such a strong affinity for oxygen that it would take it away from the aluminum, leaving the latter free. In 1854 Ste. Clair Deville experimented with potassium with the much-desired result, but the product when obtained cost more than its weight in gold, the actual cost of a pound of the metal being about \$200. Then Deville tried the mixing of aluminum chloride with common salt, subjecting the liquid to the decomposing force of a strong electric current. The product so obtained cost but little less than the first. Then he tried metallic sodium instead of potassium, by which process he was able to manufacture aluminum at a cost of \$8 per pound. No cheaper

method was discovered until 1886. In that year a new process for making sodium reduced the cost of that chemical from \$1 per pound to less than 25 cents. This had the effect of materially reducing the price of aluminum production, and by 1888 the metal was selling for \$5 per pound, the total output being one ton weekly. But the sodium process was soon to be a thing of the past, for in 1889 Charles M. Hall, of Oberlin, Ohio, patented an electrolytic process, and started a small plant for the manufacture of aluminum on the bank of the Allegheny River, about eighteen miles above Pittsburgh. The process consisted of a bath of aluminum fluoride and sodium fluoride, in which alumina has been dissolved. This mixture is kept melted by the heat of a strong electric current, which decomposes the alumina in the solution without decomposing the bath in which it is dissolved. By this process the metal is now very cheaply made, and numerous factories for its manufacture and that of its alloys have been established both in this country and abroad.

The possibilities of aluminum are infinite. It is about as light as oak wood, being about one-fourth as light as iron and has greater resistance than the very best steel. It stands high in the list of malleable metals and can be drawn into a wire 1-250th of an inch in thickness. It is an excellent conductor of electricity, and would at 20 cents per pound take the place of copper for all electrical purposes. In shipbuilding, where lightness is demanded, aluminum meets every requirement. France and Germany have several aluminum torpedo boats, and pleasure yachts are being built every year of this metal. In Germany two army corps are equipped with aluminum, the equipment including every article of metal carried on the person. Paris has several aluminum cabs, and aluminum horseshoes and aluminum sulkies are made for some of the great racers. The Twentieth Century will no doubt see it supplant iron and steel to a great extent, as the time is certain to come when it can be manufactured as cheaply as those products.

It is well known that aluminum is present in every clay bank, and it would be difficult to say more plainly how common it is. The only question is how to separate it from the clay at a cost that will put it within reach of the mechanic and the manufacturer, and as it is believed that discovery is not far off, the predicted "Aluminum Age" may be near at hand.

There is so much of the romantic and picturesque in the history of the past sixty years' developments in the mining of the precious metals and gems, that the recounting of it would seem to be more within the province of the novelist than of the sober chronicler of ordinary events. In that short period the two richest gold fields of modern times have been discovered, and diamonds and other precious stones have been found in such profusion as to cause a depreciation of at least one-third in the value of some of them, as, for instance, diamonds.

Probably the most contagious gold fever that ever spread over an adventure-loving world was that which broke out in May, 1848, when Sam Brannan, the leader of the Mormons in California, pranced through the streets of San Francisco, swinging his hat and brandishing a bottle of gold and shouting at the top of his voice, "Gold, Gold, Gold from the Amercian River." On the 19th of January of that year James Wilson Marshall, a carpenter, while at work on the tail race of Sutter's Mill, in Eldorado County, had made the discovery of the precious yellow metal. The outcry of Sam Brannan was as the touching of flame to tow. The whole town became ablaze with excitement. Everybody left his shop, store, or office and made a mad rush for Sutter's Mill, where the Mormon told them they would find the very river beds filled with golden gravel. The cry of Sam Brannan went all over the world, and the wonderful tale of an El Dorado was transported North, East, South and West. It reached Hawaii first, and twenty-seven vessels, loaded with whites and natives, set sail before October 1. Two-thirds of the population

of Oregon deserted hearth and home and sought the gold fields. From six cities, New York, Boston, Salem, Philadelphia and Baltimore, sixty-one vessels, averaging fifty passengers each, set sail for California between the middle of December and the middle of January, 1849. Sixty vessels cleared for the same voyage around Cape Horn from New York alone. During the winter and spring 250 vessels sailed from Eastern ports. The long five month's trip around Cape Horn was a wearisome outlook to the feverish gold seekers. There was a mad scramble for passage on any kind of craft that would float. The California, a side-wheel steamer of 1,050 tons, was the first of these ships to pass through the Straits of Magellan. At the South American ports competition was so fierce that steerage tickets were eagerly snatched up at \$1,000 each. When the ship arrived at San Francisco and the passengers had swarmed off into the jubilating town, every one of the officers and crew ran away except the captain and the assistant engineer. It was impossible to man the vessel for the return trip and she drifted helplessly about in the bay for a long time. Before the middle of January, 1849, there was not an important shipping port in the world that did not contain at least two or three vessels that were fitting out for the Golden Gate. Even the farthest East was not beyond the stretch of the contagion. China began to throw a stream across the Pacific, and Australia placarded the streets of her chief cities with glowing signs: "Gold, gold, gold, gold in California." In the early part of the year 316 vessels from foreign ports sailed through the Golden Gate. Most of these vessels were deserted by their crews as soon as they touched the land. At one time more than 500 ships were counted in the bay, and not one could boast a crew or guard. On a par with this great migration by water was the grand overland movement that began in the spring of 1849, as soon as passage over the plains and mountains was feasible. The story of the overland route is one long tragedy.

The rallying points of this migration were St. Joseph, Mo., and Independence, Mo., on the Missouri River, from which stretched the two long, weary trails. Thousands and thousands of vehicles of every description rolled into these headquarters early in April. In May the great caravans set out, and before June 10, 5,095 wagons had passed a certain point on the Humboldt River trail, and it was reckoned that a thousand more were left behind on account of sickness and death, or, as often happened, massacres by the Indians. The rear ranks of the long processions of that year were overtaken by a terrible scourge of cholera, and 5,000 died on the march, while other thousands were prevented from continuing the trail.

Considering the crude processes then in vogue for the mining of gold, the yield that rewarded the brave argonauts was truly phenomenal. In the first year \$10,000,000 worth was taken out; this increased to \$40,000,000 in 1849; \$50,000,000 in 1850; \$55,000,000 in 1851; \$60,000,000 in 1852, and it reached its highest point in 1853, when a total value of \$65,000,000 was discovered. During these first six years the methods of extracting gold were very crude, and therefore very wasteful. The mining was carried on in what was termed placer deposits, and the favorite tools of the forty-niner were the pan, the rocker, the Long Tom and the sluice box. The rich alluvial deposits becoming worked out in the course of time, the miner turned his attention to the gold-bearing rock. Then the mining of gold became a more difficult and costly matter. Science, skill and capital were demanded, and chemistry was called in to determine the composition of the various ores. The pan, the rocker and the Long Tom gave place to the highly organized machinery of the stamp mill, with its costly stamp batteries, amalgamating pans, and concentrating tables. In due time the rebellious ores were treated by roasting, and the various leaching processes were introduced, by which practically the last trace of gold could be recovered from

the tailings. There were also perfected a number of systems of hydraulic mining, whereby enormous deposits of gold-bearing gravel can be worked to advantage. As its name indicates, the mining is done by the action of water, which is discharged under enormous pressure against the gravel bank or boulder, thoroughly segregating it and washing it into sluices, where the gold is deposited.

During the first flush of the gold excitement there was little or no attention paid to the mining of the less valuable metal silver, although it abounded in close proximity to the gold diggings. To the two and a half million ounces of gold taken out in 1850, there were only 38,000 ounces of silver. This rose to 12,375,360 ounces in 1870, and reached the maximum in 1890, when it amounted to 54,517,440.

Since the discovery of gold in California, rich deposits have been located and worked in all the Rocky Mountain states and in the Black Hills of Dakota, but with the exception of the Cripple Creek Colorado excitement of 1895-1896, nothing approaching the frenzy of '49 occurred until the news was spread that treasure of untold value had been found in Alaska. Then the scenes of the early fifties were enacted all over again. The excitement reached its height in 1898, and men and women, too, flocked from the uttermost parts of the earth to the frozen and barren regions of the Yukon and the Klondike. The tragedies of the overland, or "back-door route," as it is called in this case, were repeated. Bleached bones strewed the way over the Canadian Rockies and through the mountains of Eastern Alaska for thousands of miles, and the name of Chilkoot Pass became synonymous with that of death. During the winter of 1897-98 and the following summer every available vessel in the Pacific ports was put into requisition, and hundred of thousands made the long sea journey to St. Michels, thence up the Yukon, sixteen hundred miles to Dawson City, the metropolis of the New El Dorado. Owing to climatic restraints, it has been impossible to de-

termine the richness of the new treasure land, or to even make a conjecture regarding its possibilities.

There is not space here to even briefly describe the wonderful and costly mechanisms that have been introduced into the gold-mining industry in very recent years. The principal innovations, however, are the steam dredge, used for scraping up the gravel from the rivers, and the peripatetic mining machine on wheels, built by the Pullman Company for the smelting and testing of ores.

The development of copper mining industry has been no less remarkable than that of gold. The discovery of the famous Cliff copper mine on the shores of Lake Michigan in 1844 opened up one of the richest deposits of this mineral that has even been known. The first recorded production was one of 12 tons, taken from this mine in 1845, which increased to 150 tons in 1848. Within the last twenty years the increase of production has been without a parallel. From 27,000 tons in 1880 it had attained to more than 200,000 tons in 1897, an amount which is greater than the total production of all the other countries of the world combined. Although copper is worth to-day only one-half what it was twenty-five years ago, the output is more than thirteen times as great. This success has been achieved entirely by the introduction of improved machinery for the mining of the raw material and in efficient processes of metallurgy in the division and refining of the ore. The great Calumet and Hecla mines in Michigan each treat not less than 1,000 tons, and often as much as 3,000 tons of rock daily. The machinery used in handling this material is the most powerful of its kind—compressors and rock drills, pumps for lifting water from the mines; huge engines for hoisting the rocks and enormous steam stamp mills where the ore is prepared for the hydraulic processes of concentration which separate it from the copper. An immense quantity of water is required by these mills—not less than thirty tons for each ton of rock treated—and in the pumping of

the water from the lake some of the largest pumping engines in the world are used.

The mining and metallurgy of the baser metals—zinc, lead and tin, and the manufacture of tin plate, have in recent years become pre-eminently American industries. The extraordinary large deposits of zinc and lead which have been found in Kansas and Missouri have led to some notable improvements in the methods of smelting, one of the most notable being the adoption of the electro-magnet. A new process for the manufacture of paint is one of the important outgrowths of the Kansas lead industry. The old process of manufacturing white lead by the slow corrosion of pig lead has been done away with entirely. The intent of the new process is to turn the ore directly into white lead, and to manufacture that into paint. This process started with the idea of saving white lead from the smoke and fumes of the smelter. It has reached such economical development that the ability of the workmen to stand before the furnace is the measure of the amount of lead which shall pass into the more valuable product. The heat to make the new process effective must be of the most intense character, the furnace being fed with broken car wheels or anything that will produce sufficient heat to turn the lead into smoke and fumes, from which the white lead is extracted.

There have been no industrial phenomena so distinctly characteristic of the Nineteenth Century as the sudden discovery and development of the utilities of the oil and natural gas fields of Pennsylvania, West Virginia and Ohio. The rapidity with which advantage has been taken of the newly discovered resources, and the manner with which they have been applied to the widest variety of manufacturing purposes, have resulted in important modifications in a number of industries. Although petroleum had been known from the earliest times, the history of the industry really dates from August 28, 1859, when oil was struck at a depth of 69½ feet along the banks of Oil

Creek, Venango County, Pa. This well flowed a thousand gallons a day and the excitement that followed the discovery rivaled the gold stampede of ten years before. Before the close of the year 1860, 2,000 flowing wells had been sunk, and the daily output of seventy-four of them was 1,165 barrels of 40 gallons each. Oil Creek below Titusville, the valley of the Allegheny from Franklin to Warren County, and the banks of French Creek, became one bustling city of derricks. Poor, hard-working farmers were made multi-millionaires in the course of a night. Small villages reared themselves into veritable metropolises, and a period of recklessness and wild extravagance ensued, which has never been equalled in the history of any mining camp. Although the abnormal features of the early development of this particular territory have since disappeared, it is still considered one of the richest oil-producing localities in the world. More recent but equally fruitful discoveries of oil and natural gas have been made in West Virginia and Ohio and a small district near Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, while the fields of Siberia have been opened to the world.

The development of natural gas, always to be found in greater or less quantities in petroleum territory, dates back to 1878, but it did not come into general use for domestic and manufacturing purposes until 1884. It was then piped to Pittsburgh and for a few years the Smoky City lost its right to that time-honored pseudonym. In 1887 extensive gas fields were discovered in Indiana, but now, after a dozen years, they, too, have become partially exhausted, although the economy of today may in part atone for the extravagance of the past and make them available for a generation to come. The towns and cities that have sprung up around the natural gas centers show evidence that they may hold and increase their prosperity, even should the supply of gas become exhausted.

For many years it was thought impracticable for America to even attempt the manufacture of tin plate, and that

industry, which has now reached considerable proportions, really dates its birth to the passage of the tariff act of 1890. Since then American tin plate competes successfully with the very best Cornwall product. The Black Hills of Dakota contain 500 square miles of tin-producing district, containing more tin than all the other tin mines of the world put together, but up to the present time no means of working this ore have been discovered. Improved methods employed in the treatment of the plates are all the results of the past forty years. With the exception of a few of the Cornwall factories, hand-made tin plate is a thing of the past. Briefly described, the present process consists, first, in placing the iron or steel sheet to be coated in a solution of sulphuric acid or "black pickle" for the removal of the scale. Washed of the "black pickle" they are then annealed in cast-iron boxes filled with sand to exclude the air. After ten or twelve hours' roasting, the plates are passed through cold rolls and annealed a second time, when they are ready for the second, or "white pickle." After this they are dipped in the tinning pot, where they receive the necessary coating.

As has already been mentioned, the value of diamonds has in recent years depreciated fully one-third. This is due partly to improved methods of cutting and partly to the discovery of enormous quantities of the gem in South Africa in 1869 and 1870. In the beginning of the Nineteenth Century diamonds were extremely scarce, because of the primitive way of working the mines, there being no machinery for the purpose of excavation. The South African diamonds were at first found in gravel surface and entailed scarcely any expense in mining. At that time the seat of the diamond-cutting industry was at Amsterdam, and the number of establishments did not exceed eight. The development of the African mines so increased the trade, however, that at present there are between fifty and sixty large diamond-cutting houses in Amsterdam alone.

Antwerp in 1870 had four establishments and 200 diamond workers; now it has eighty establishments and 4,000 workers. Large diamond-cutting establishments have also been founded in London, Paris, Geneva and Berlin, with smaller ones in several of the minor cities of France and Germany, and it is estimated that there are now 16,500 persons engaged in the diamond industry in Europe.

Although the discoveries of precious stones in America have thus far not been such as to warrant high expectations, nevertheless gems of exceeding value have been found in various states. Sapphires of extreme beauty and great intrinsic value have been mined in Idaho; New Mexico has in late years produced some magnificent turquoises, together with opals, emeralds and garnets. Diamonds are met within well defined districts of California. North Carolina, Georgia, and Wisconsin. Exquisite beryls have been found in Colorado, Connecticut, Virginia and North Carolina.

With the marvelous facilities for quarrying and shipping, the production of building stones has become one of the most thoroughly organized industries peculiar to the present century.

EXPLORATIONS.

The first man to attempt the solution of the "polar problem" in the Nineteenth Century was Captain William Scoresby, an Englishman, who pushed his way through terrible difficulties until he reached a latitude of 81 degrees 12 minutes, 42 seconds, on the north of Spitzbergen. In 1818 the British Government sent out two expeditions. One, under Captain James Ross and Lieutenant Edward Parry, was dispatched to Davis Straits, and the other, under Captain Buchan and Lieutenant John Franklin, to Spitzbergen. The latter expedition met with misfortune before it had reached the latitude attained by Captain Scoresby, but the former, with the utmost exertion, succeeded in rediscovering Baffin's Bay, passing by way of Lancaster

Sound 400 miles westward, or about half way to Behring Strait. In 1821-3 Parry made a second journey, discovering the Fury and Hecla Straits. In a third attempt (1827) he succeeded in attaining the latitude of 82 degrees 45 minutes north of Spitzbergen, which was no farther than whalers had penetrated in former years, with scarcely a hindrance. He quit his ship, the Hecla, on the northern coast of Spitzbergen and betook himself to his boats. When he had reached 81 degrees, 13 minutes, he encountered difficulties that compelled him to convert his boats into sledges. After a long, perilous journey toward the North he discovered that the ice on which he was traveling was moving Southward as rapidly as he was advancing North, and that he was in the very same latitude as when he started. In the meantime Lieutenant Franklin had started on another expedition, in 1819, and had succeeded in traversing a long stretch of the coast of Arctic America, passing by the Saskatchewan and the Barren Ground as far as the Coppermine River, which he followed and explored for 500 miles. In 1826, accompanied by Dr. Richardson, his companion in the former expedition, he descended the Mackenzie River and explored the coast of the continent through 37 degrees of longitude, pushing as far West as 160 miles from Point Barrow, which had been reached from the West in 1826 by Captain Beechey. Meanwhile the viking spirit of Captain Scoresby had not been slumbering. In 1822 he had penetrated the ice-barriers of Eastern Greenland, and had surveyed the coast line from 75 degrees to 69.

The most important of the early Arctic expeditions was that commanded by Captain John Ross and his nephew, James C. Ross. The ship *Victory*, which carried the party, left England in 1829, entered Barrow Strait, and into the Gulf of Boothia—named in honor of Felix Booth, the patron of the expedition. The projecting peninsula on the left, also named Boothia, was thoroughly explored, as was also King William's Land. On June 1,

1831, a wonderful discovery was made. The Magnetic Pole, the ancient mystery of mariners, was located in the western part of Boothia. For a long time the Rosses were thought to have perished, and in 1833 a relief expedition was sent to their rescue, but before reaching them they had been picked up by a whaling vessel in Barrow Strait, having had to abandon their own ships. In 1837-39 Simpson & Dease, of the Hudson Bay Company, completed the tracing of the coast line westward as far as Point Barrow and eastward to the Castor and Pollux River. The entire outline of the Northern coast of America was not known, however, until 1853, when Dr. John Rae took up and completed the work begun by the Hudson Bay Company people and discovered King William's Land to be an island.

In June, 1845, the indefatigable John Franklin, who had been knighted in 1829 in recognition of his distinguished services as an explorer, was given command of the *Erebus* and the *Terror*, and instructed to attempt to discover a practicable northwest passage to India. With the blare of trumpets and the adulations of a whole nation ringing in their ears, the expedition left England to meet one of the most tragic fates of modern times. The last that was seen of the vessels was in July of the same year. No news of the party having reached England, a relief expedition was sent out which returned without finding a trace of the lost ones. Between that and 1854, twenty separate expeditions, at the cost of a million pounds sterling, were sent from England and America in hope of finding—if not survivors—at least traces of the missing crews. The task seemed hopeless, but after long and persistent endeavors on the part of the British Government, of Lady Franklin and of private explorers, the mystery was finally solved by the expedition of McClintock, in 1857. This steamer made the melancholy discovery that Sir John Franklin died June 11, 1847, on the Northwest coast of King William's Land, and that on April 22, 1848, the

Erebus and the *Terror* were abandoned in the ice. The officers and crew, 105 souls in all, under Captain Crozier, reached King William's Island, whence they attempted to make their way to the Hudson Bay Company's stations. From information gleaned from the Esquimaux, and by subsequently discovered relics of the party, it appears that the poor men fell, one by one, on the way, dying of cold and starvation, and that very few of them ever reached the mainland. The relief expeditions that were sent out with the hope of succoring the ill-fated Franklin party have indirectly led to the richest geographical results. Among the most important of these expeditions is that of Dr. Kane, who sailed from New York, May 30, 1853. Dr. Kane, three years previously, had accompanied Lieutenant De Haven in an expedition for the same purpose. The disappointment that had attended the return of the unsuccessful American and English expeditions only increased the public desire to ascertain the fate of Franklin, and Dr. Kane shared in this anxiety to the extent of contributing his entire fortune to the fitting out of the *Advance*. The brave officers and crew were unsuccessful in obtaining any trace of Franklin and had to abandon their ship in the ice and travel with sledges and boats for eighty-four days, until they reached the Danish settlements of Greenland. The stories of the suffering and discoveries of this little band of adventurers are among the most thrilling in the history of Arctic exploration. On his return, in 1855, Dr. Kane was awarded gold medals by Congress, by the Legislature of New York and by the Royal Geographical Society of London. He also received the Queen's Medal given to Arctic explorers.

Previous to 1879 Arctic expeditions had left the region north of Behring Strait comparatively unexplored and on the 8th day of July of that year, the ill-fated *Jeannette* sailed out of the Golden Gate at San Francisco bound "for that strange land from whose bourne," it may almost be said, "no traveler returns." The *Jeannette*, for-

merly the *Pandora*, a gunboat, was officered and manned from the United States Navy. There were thirty-two souls on board, under the command of Captain De Long, and the ship was provisioned for a three years' cruise. The ship proceeded by way of St. Michaels, Alaska, and thence to Wrangle Land, where the ship was frozen in on the night of September 20. Then came a period of twenty-one months drift in the ice pack, and during the first five months only forty miles was made. Yet several islands were discovered and named. On May 16, 1880, Jeannette Island was sighted in latitude 76 degrees, 47 minutes N.; on May 27, Henrietta Island, 77 degrees, 8 minutes N.; also Bennet Island, in latitude 76 degrees 38 minutes N. For two long years nothing was heard of the *Jeannette*, and during all this time she was drifting helplessly and surely to destruction. On the 11th of June, 1881, the end came, and the ship was crushed to dust beneath a mountain of ice from one of those sudden upheavals that had so often threatened her during her long sojourn upon this floating island. Fortunately, the catastrophe had been anticipated, and the crew had been divided into three parties, which put out in small boats. They were then in latitude 77 degrees north, near New Siberia Island, 500 miles from the mouth of the Lena river. The boats succeeded in keeping together until the night of September 12, when a terrible storm sent them drifting in different directions toward the Siberian coast. The boat containing Lieutenant Chipp and his crew was never heard from, but the boats of Captain De Long and Chief Engineer Melville landed at points near the mouth of the Lena. It was a barren, desolate shore that De Long stepped upon, with no trace of its ever before having been trodden by a human being. Melville's crew was more fortunate in finding a landing place, and they immediately instituted a search for their superior officer. Many weeks afterward tracks were discovered, and with the assistance of native guides, the searching party were at

last successful in finding the location of the last bivouac. The bodies of De Long and his companions were found lying about the charred embers of the fire they had built. De Long's diary was by his side, his pencil grasped in his frozen fingers, showing that the delicious rest of that sleep which precedes death by freezing had overtaken him in the act of making an entry in the sad record of his sufferings. On April 7, 1882, the remains of the whole party were laid in one grave, with a pile of stone and a wooden cross to mark the spot. During the winters of 1882-3 and 1883-4 the bodies were transported across Siberia on dog sleds, a distance of 5,761 miles, to the eastern terminus of the railroad to Moscow, whence the funeral cortege moved on to America, special honors being paid to it all along the route.

The next important Arctic expedition was that undertaken by A. W. Greely (then a lieutenant in the United States Army), who started in the ship *Proteus* in the summer of 1881, with twenty-five explorers and provisions to last a little over two years. Headquarters were made in Discovery Harbor in August of that year, and the *Proteus* returned to the United States. The chief object of the expedition was to establish a scientific international polar station in Lady Franklin Bay, as recommended by the Hamburg International Polar Commission of two years before, and to this end excursions were made into the surrounding country to obtain the true position and outline of Grinnell Land. Captain James Lockwood was entrusted with the most important work of the expedition. In March, 1882, in company with Sergeant Brainard, they set out on a journey that fixed Lockwood's fame as an Arctic explorer. They crossed Robeson channel to Newman Bay on dog sleds with the thermometer ranging from 30 to 55 degrees below zero. After reaching Cape Bryant, on the north coast, they sent back all their attendants except one Esquimaux servant, and proceeded northward to an island in latitude 83.20, less than 350 miles from the pole, where, on May

15, Lockwood unfurled to the breeze the United States flag, exultant in the thought that it waved in a higher latitude than had any flag before. The little party returned to Fort Conger June 17, the journey having occupied sixty days and covering a distance of 1,069 miles. The expedition was rich in scientific and geographical results. The recorded boundary of known land had been extended twenty-eight miles nearer the pole and 125 miles hitherto undiscovered coast line mapped out. As previously arranged with the Government, the Neptune was sent out with fresh supplies in 1882 and the Proteus in 1883. Neither of these vessels reached Discovery Harbor, and the Proteus was crushed by the ice and sunk. Their supplies running low, the expedition abandoned their quarters and reached Cape Sabine in October with supplies for only two months. Their sufferings during the succeeding year were intense. Sixteen died of starvation, among them the brave Lockwood, one was drowned and one shot to death for stealing food from the commissary stores. In the meantime the public anxiety had grown intense, and the United States fitted out another relief expedition. Captain Schley (since the famous commodore of the American-Spanish war), with three ships, Thetis, Bear and Aleut, reached Cape Sabine June 22, 1884, and took off seven survivors, then at the point of death. Lieutenant Greely was unable to appear in public for some time after his rescue, but as soon as he was able, he was received with enthusiasm, not only in his own country, but abroad.

The next American to strive for the honors of Arctic discovery was Lieutenant Robert E. Peary, United States Navy, who was sent out in June, 1891, by the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia. The object of the expedition was to explore the north and northwest coasts of Greenland from the land side. Lieutenant Peary was accompanied by his wife and a number of scientists detailed by the Academy. The expedition sailed June 6, on the Arctic whaler Kite, Captain

Richard Pike commander. The journey was unmarked by fatalities, and the explorers succeeded in attaining 81 degrees, 37 minutes, a lower latitude than that reached by Lockwood and Brainard. In 1893 Peary made a second expedition, accompanied again by his wife and a party of scientists. After sending home the vessel, the party went into camp on the west coast of Greenland, where a daughter was born in September. The winter of 1893-94 was spent in preparations for sledge exploring. On March 6 they set out on a journey which resulted in the survey and mapping of 150 miles of coast line hitherto unknown. A relief auxiliary expedition opened communication with Peary on August 1, and reached Falcon Bay August 20. They returned August 26, leaving only Lieutenant Peary and his two volunteers, Lee and Henson, to complete their explorations next season. A second relief party brought back the explorers to the United States in 1895. Peary made a third expedition in 1898, remaining until 1902, and reaching the high latitude of 84 degrees, 17 minutes, the highest attained to that time in American waters. He went north again in 1905, and on this occasion with remarkable success. His ship was the Roosevelt, a steamship expressly designed for Arctic navigation, and in the spring of 1906 he made a sledge journey over the northern ice. Though delayed by the breaking of the ice and imperiled by the loss of provisions, he made the highest northing yet attained, reaching the latitude of 87 degrees 4 minutes, N., about 200 miles from the pole, and 38 miles farther north than the point reached by the Duke of Abruzzi expedition. He also extended the survey of the northern islands, and added considerably to our knowledge of Arctic geography.

The Jackson-Harmsworth expedition of 1894-97, which left England in the whaler Windward, solved some most interesting geographical problems. The northern coasts of Franz Joseph Land were accurately determined, and the much vexed problem of Gillies Land

was decided. It is now quite clear that this land does not lie where geographers have been in the habit of putting it. The map of British Franz Joseph Land was practically completed, and the new map entirely revolutionizes old ideas of the territory. Instead of a continental mass of land, as was long supposed, there is a vast number of small islands, to the north of which is an open sea, the most northerly open sea in the whole world, and which has been named the Queen Victoria Sea.

This long catalogue of daring Arctic adventures was brought to a fitting climax by the return of Dr. Fridjof Nansen, the Norwegian explorer, whose triumph it is to have gone nearer the pole by 200 miles than any of his predecessors. On June 24, 1893, the wonderfully constructed Fram left Kristiana. The success of the expedition was no doubt due largely to this vessel, which was built on a plan calculated to resist the stupendous power of crushing ice floes. On the 10th of September the northern point of Siberia had been safely rounded, and the Fram pushed eastward toward the New Siberian Islands. On September 25, at a latitude of 78 degrees 45 minutes, the vessel was frozen in about 150 miles north of the western part of these islands. Then began the routine of the drift. The ship was arranged for the winter, and a windmill erected for electric service. This drift continued until September, 1894, when Dr. Nansen concluded that he and a companion would attempt a sledge journey over the ice by which he could explore further to the northward. On March 14th a start was made with three sledges and nine dogs each. On the first day only nine miles was made, the temperature ranging from 40 to 45 below zero. They pushed on by these slow stages until April 8, when a chaos of ice blocks barred the way. The latitude attained was 83 degrees 13 minutes 6 seconds, in east longitude 95 degrees. Progress was so slow and with no sign of improvement, that the gigantic task of covering the 200 miles intervening between that point and the pole had to be abandoned, and it was decided

to turn to the southward. Then began a terrible struggle for life. Exhausted nature began to assert itself, and on the 12th of the month the pair slept so long that their watches ran down. As the dogs began to die from exhaustion they were killed and fed to the survivors. At first some of them refused to eat it, but hunger soon destroyed all scruples against canine diet. Not until the 24th of the following July did the sight of land gladden the eyes of the weary travelers, and then it was but a barren snow-covered shore; yet twenty-two days of terrible struggle elapsed before the land was reached. Almost impossible ice, lanes and pools had to be crossed on short rations, and Nansen writes: "Inconceivable toil. We never could go on with it if it were not for the fact that we must. On the 7th open water was reached. The two surviving dogs were regretfully killed, and after many struggles with the ice along shore, on the 15th of August the pair set foot on the solid earth for the first time in two years. It was now too late for them to attempt to travel further south, and winter quarters were made on one of the islands of the Franz Joseph archipelago. Here in dull misery and squalor, the winter was passed in a half comatose condition. They ate and slept and kept a few observations going." Nansen's journal shows no complaints or repinings, although for more than two years no food except whale blubber had passed his lips. On the 19th of May they left their winter lair. After many vicissitudes and dangers, on June 17 Nansen heard the bark of a dog, and in a few moments was shaking hands with the members of the Jackson-Harmsworth expedition. Their task was ended and the victory won. The journey of Nansen and Johansen from the Fram to their winter quarters was, in round numbers, about 500 nautical miles, and the distance made averaged three miles a day. The distance from their winter quarters to the nearest frequented harbor in Spitzbergen was 540 miles. Had Nansen not met with the English expedition, the result in the end must have been disastrous to him and

his companion. Truly fortune favors the brave.

Of the daring Professor A. S. Andree, of Stockholm, there can nothing be said. Under the patronage of the King of Sweden and the endorsement of the Czar of Russia, he started for the pole in a huge balloon in May, 1897, and up to the present time nothing authentic has been seen of or heard from him.

On April 6, 1909, Commodore R. E. Peary reached the north pole by sledge journey from Cape Columbia, Grant Land. Peary's surroundings appear to show that he passed the edge of the Continental shelf about fifty miles from land, in the neighborhood of the pole. No bottom was reached, the depth of the ocean there exceeding 9,000 feet.

Dr. Cook, returning from Greenland, advanced the claim that he had reached the north pole in the spring of 1908, but the evidence he adduced was declared by expert geographers to be unsubstantial, and his claim has not been allowed.

In this great international race for the north pole, the search for the south pole has not been neglected. Antarctic exploration began with the year 1820, when the Russian expedition, under Bellinghausen, discovered the islets of Petra and Alexandria. In 1821 Captain George Powell discovered the South Orkneys. In 1831 Captain John Biscoe discovered Enderby's Land, but did not get within twenty miles of it by reason of the ice. He also discovered Adelaide Island and landed on it. In 1838 Captain John Bellew and Captain Freena discovered a group of volcanic islands, one peak of which rose to a height of 12,000 feet. In 1839 Dumont d'Urville discovered Terre Adelie and Cote Clair, two islands. It remained, however, for Captain Charles Wilkes, commanding the United States exploration during the years 1838-42 to really discover, explore and make certain the existence of land around the southern pole. Towards the close of December, 1839, Captain Wilkes and his squadron, consisting of the United States flagship Vincennes, the Peacock, the schooner

Flying Fish and the brig Porpoise, set out for New South Wales, and by January 1 had reached latitude 43 degrees south. It was midsummer weather for that region and preparations were made to secure the interior of the vessels from cold and wet, which inevitably lay in store for them. The bold navigators were sailing into a sea of mystery and doubt, and no one knew what was before them. On January 3 the fog became so thick that the flagship's horns were not heard by the other vessels and they became scattered. On the 10th the first icebergs were met by the Vincennes, and on the 11th she was unable to proceed for the impassable barrier of bergs before her. In the meantime the Peacock had reached Macquerie Island, and the Porpoise was sighted not far off. For many days thereafter the three vessels of the squadron skirted westward along the ice barrier. On the 19th the officers of the flagship distinctly saw high land, leaving no possible doubt of the discovery of the Antarctic continent. Soundings brought up mud, and great boulders were found on the icebergs. All efforts, however, to pass the great perpendicular wall of crystal were futile, and after many narrow escapes from being ground to powder by the ice, days of slow creeping through mist and fog, the three ships pointed for the Auckland Islands.

The expedition sent out by the British Government in 1839-43 in the Erebus and Terror, under Captain (afterward Sir) James Ross, was rich in geographical results. The two vessels, which were destined a few years later to carry the ill-fated Franklin party to its doom, succeeded in reaching the latitude of 78 degrees 11 minutes S. in February, 1842, without mishap. In the first year Kerguelen Island was surveyed, and in the following year Victoria Land was sighted in 70 degrees S. latitude. Proceeding southward along the coast capped with lofty mountains, an active volcano, Mt. Erebus, 12,400 feet, was sighted in latitude 77 degrees 30 minutes; also an extinct volcano, Mt. Terror, 10,900 feet,

but owing to impenetrable ice barriers, further progress was impossible. What was immediately beyond this high, perpendicular cliff of crystal could not be imagined, and to the present day remains a sublime mystery. With the departure of Captain Ross from that terra incognita of the South Polar Sea, more than half a century ago, its darkness and desolation become a memory only, although an expedition under Borchegrevink in 1898 and several later ones attempted the solution of the problem.

The most interesting feat of exploration on the North American continent recorded in the Nineteenth Century is the expedition headed by Captain Meriwether Lewis and Captain William Clarke, which was sent out by President Jefferson in the summer of 1803 for the purpose of exploring the country lying between the Missouri River and the Pacific Ocean. This vast stretch of territory was then in absolute possession of the Indians, and no travelers ever set out upon a more dangerous journey. In the spring of 1804 they began the ascent of the Missouri River, having passed the previous winter on the banks at its confluence with the Mississippi. They could travel only by slow stages, owing to frequent surprises from the Indians, who showed themselves extremely hostile to the encroachments of the whites. The second winter was passed in the Mandans, and not until the middle of June did they reach the great falls. A short distance above this point they discovered the three concurring streams, which they named Jefferson, Madison and Gallatin, in honor of the President, Secretary of State and Secretary of the Treasury. They ascended the Jefferson to its source, and, accompanied by a guide from the Shonshone tribe of Indians, they traveled through the fastness of the mountains until September 22, when they entered the plains of the great western slope. On October 7 they embarked in canoes on the Koonkoosky, which proved to be a branch of the Columbia River, and by November 15th, after many thrilling

escapes from death, they met the tide of the great Pacific, having traveled more than four thousand miles from the confluence of the Missouri and the Mississippi. The third winter was passed on the south bank of the Columbia River, the explorers devoting every moment of their time to surveying and investigating the surrounding territory. The homeward journey, with all its dangers, was begun on March 23, 1806, and they reached St. Louis September 23, after an absence of two years and four months. In return for the invaluable services rendered the nation in opening this immense territory, Congress made grants of land to all the members of the expedition. Lewis was made Governor of Missouri, and Clarke was appointed a member of his staff.

Few explorers have begun the careers for which they were destined under such romantic circumstances as did the "Pathfinder," as John Charles Fremont is commonly called. As a young topographical engineer in 1840 he was engaged in Washington in preparing a report of some minor expedition which he had made a couple of years before. Here he became engaged to Miss Jessie Benton, the daughter of a Missouri Senator, much against the wishes of her parents. Through the potent influence of Colonel Benton, the unwelcome suitor received peremptory orders to go to the western frontier and make an examination of the Des Moines River. The commands were instantly complied with, the young officer returned, and after secretly marrying the young lady, projected a geographical survey of the entire United States from the Missouri River to the Pacific Ocean. This gigantic task begun May 2, 1842, was successfully accomplished in the incredibly short time of four months. As soon as his reports had been submitted to Congress he planned another and still more extensive expedition, and in May, 1843, he commenced a journey, the ultimate object of which was to explore and survey the terra incognita lying between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean. On

September 6, after traveling 1,700 miles, Great Salt Lake was seen shimmering in the distance. Up to that time nothing accurate had been known about this great inland sea. The upper tributaries of the Columbia were next accurately surveyed, and the journey extended to Vancouver. Returning by the southeast route, leading from the Columbia to the Colorado River, he found himself in an unknown region encompassed by lofty mountain peaks. It was now late in November, and death confronted the whole party, forty in all. The beautiful summer land of California lay beyond the rugged, snow-clad mountain chains, but the Indians declared that no man could pass. Exorbitant rewards were offered, but none were great enough to induce an Indian to attempt to guide the party. At this juncture Fremont won his famous sobriquet of the "Pathfinder." He led his company out and began one of the most thrilling feats in history. Without a guide he crossed the terrible barriers that stood between life and death, and in forty days from beginning the ascent the party was at Sutter's Fort on the Sacramento. When his half-perishing men had been restored sufficiently the homeward journey was made. The Sierra Nevadas were crossed, Salt Lake revisited, and in July, 1844, Kansas was entered from the South Pass. In the spring of 1845 the "Pathfinder" set out with a third expedition to explore the great basin of the Rocky Mountains and the coast of Oregon and California. The skirmishing preliminary to the breaking out of the Mexican war prompted him to now defend the territory he had discovered and explored, and under his leadership in less than a month all Northern California was freed from Mexican authority. On July 4, 1846, he was elected Governor of California. During the progress of the Mexican war he got into difficulties with his superior military officers, was ordered to Washington, court-martialed and relieved of his command. Undaunted and undiscouraged, he started out on a fourth expedition across the continent in October. This time the

route was along the Rio Grande, through the then unknown country of the fierce Apaches, Comanches and Utes. Of all his expeditions this was the only unfortunate one. His guide lost his way, and they were stranded far in the Sierra Nevada Mountains in dead of winter. One by one the horses and mules began to die, and finally the men. Their sufferings were horrible, and finally cannibalism was resorted to. Fremont, with a remnant of emaciated and half-delirious men, succeeded in finding their way back to Sante Fe. No sooner had he recovered from the effects of his terrible experiences than he started out again with a party of thirty, who succeeded in reaching California in the spring of 1849 without serious difficulty.

AFRICAN EXPLORATIONS.

In 1816 Captain Tuckey succeeded in exploring the Congo as far as the first rapids. In August, 1827, Clapperton, in company with Denham, made his famous journey from Tripoli to Lake Chad, and crossed Africa from the Bight of Benin to Sokoto. In 1820-27 a survey of nearly all the west and east coast was made by Captain F. W. Owen, and the north coast by the Beechys. In 1840 Abyssinia was explored by Dr. Beke, and in 1843-6 Mansfield Parkyns and Chichele Plowden made egress into this forbidden land by way of the Nile. In 1846 John Petherick traversed the territory from Kenah to Kosseir, and in 1853 entered the land of the Jur. James Richardson was the first European to enter Ghat, and after exploring Fezzan turned to Tripoli in 1850. An expedition, 1851-4, under Dr. Barth, explored the Central Sudan States, the Niger, Shari and Binue and the territory watered by them, and visited Timbuktu. In 1850 Francis Galton made a 2,000 mile journey through the country of Damara and the Ovampo.

In 1840 the immortal Livingstone, with whose name African exploration is probably more closely associated than with that of any other traveler, went

to South Africa as a missionary. The year 1847 found him settled in the very interior, whence, in 1849, he accompanied Oswell and Murray on an expedition in search of Lake Ngami, about which he had obtained some information from the natives. On August 1st he discovered the magnificent sheet of water, and during the few days following explored its borders, afterward making an extended voyage down its outlet, the Zouga. In 1852, after having sent his family to England, Livingstone commenced a journey of discovery that won for him the plaudits of the entire world. For four long years he traversed South Africa from the Cape of Good Hope, passing through Tete, descending the Zambesi to the sea, traveling in all an estimated distance of 11,000 miles. For this great achievement he received the Victoria Gold Medal of the Geographical Society, and when he visited England in 1856 he was received with distinguished honors. In the spring of 1858 he returned to Africa and (accompanied by Mrs. Livingstone) began his famous Zambesi expedition, which continued until 1864. After following the course of the great stream for a long distance he turned off toward the north and explored the beautiful Lake Nyassa, which he discovered in September, 1859. The death of Mrs. Livingstone at Shupanga, April 27, 1862, was a sad ending for a long succession of brilliant accomplishments, and in 1864 Dr. Livingstone returned to England. He immediately made preparations for another expedition, and in April, 1865, he left his native land, never to return. Nothing was heard from him for a year, and in March, 1867, it was reported that he had been assassinated by the natives. Only occasional stray bits of news regarding his movements were received by the outside world until 1869. Then followed a long silence of two years' duration. Public anxiety had by this time reached a fever heat, and the New York Herald sent out its correspondent, Henry M. Stanley, to search for the missing man. He there found the lost Livingstone

alive and well, and received from him an account of his long wanderings and marvelous discoveries. Livingstone and Stanley together now made an exploration of the north end of Tanganyika. In March, 1872, Stanley returned to England, and Livingstone proceeded south to Bangweolo, where he died. In his career as an explorer Livingstone traversed some 29,000 miles of African soil, most of it new, and he laid open nearly one million square miles of territory that was previously unknown and which had appeared on the map as an absolute blank.

While Livingstone was at work in South Africa, Burton and Speke, Grant and Baker, were exploring the magnificent domains of the Upper Nile country. In 1861 Speke and Grant reached Unyanyembe, and the two succeeding years were spent in a march northward to the Victoria Nyanza, the vast inland fresh water lake discovered by Speke in his expedition with Burton in 1857. The outlet of the Nile at Ripon Falls was discovered, and in February, 1863, they met Sir Samuel Baker at Gondokora on the White Nile. There was great joy among the travelers when they met on the shores of this classic stream, and there were many congratulations exchanged. Speke and Grant by their discovery of the main source of the Nile had solved a puzzle that had been exercising the imaginations of geographers since the dawn of history. Sir Samuel related his re-discovery of the Muta Nzige of Speke and of a second vast sheet of water, to which he gave the name of Albert Nyanza. In 1874-79 Gordon Pasha cleared up still further the mystery of the Upper Nile, and obtained much valuable knowledge of the territory on either side of the river. In 1887-9 Stanley headed an English expedition sent out to the relief of Emin Pasha, which resulted in further knowledge regarding the hydrography of the Nile and the Congo.

The expedition which fixed Stanley's fame as one of the greatest explorers the world has ever known was that which began in 1875, when he circum-

navigated the Victoria Nyanza, visited Uganda, marched across an unknown country to the river Lualaba, on which he embarked in November, 1876, not knowing where the mighty torrent would lead him. He traveled a distance of 1,800 miles, and when he reached the mouth of the river, in August, 1877, it proved to be the Congo. This was the most important discovery that had ever been made in the exploration of the dark continent. Its consequences were of vast political and commercial importance, among them the founding of the Congo Free State.

Although the opening of Africa has been pre-eminently an English undertaking, much work has been done by French and German expeditions. One of the most remarkable exploits is that of Commander Monteil, a Frenchman, who early in 1893 completed a journey of 4,400 miles, three-fifths of it in humid tropical Africa, and two-fifths in the thirsty desert. He is the first white man to cross from ocean to ocean the country lying below the great northern bend of the Niger River, and he is the second white man to reach Lake Tchad from the Atlantic Ocean. The expedition in 1893 of Lieutenant Von Gotzen across the forests of Central Africa, from sea to sea, was a noteworthy one from a geographical standpoint. In the year 1861 Gerhard Rohlfs began his explorations. Disguised as a Moorish physician, he entered the Kingdom of Morocco, practiced for a time with great success at Fez, and subsequently visited all parts of the country north of the Great Sahara. During a journey to the oasis of Tafilit, in the Sahara, he was attacked by the leaders of the caravan he had joined, robbed, severely wounded and left as dead by the mauraunders. A band of passing dervishes found him nearly dying with thirst and loss of blood, and, binding his wounds and giving him a supply of water, left him to continue his journey unmolested. Undaunted by this terrible experience he undertook to reach the oasis of Tuat, which had never been visited by a European. He succeeded in this remarkable ven-

ture, secretly measured and mapped it, and then made his way to Tripoli by way of the more northerly Oasis of Chadames. This journey counts among the most important and daring explorations of the Dark Continent.

To name all the men who have within the past fifty years devoted their lives, and in many cases sacrificed them, to the details of African exploration, would be an impossible task, and to make a selection would be invidious. Scores of scientists and brave missionaries have laid down their lives in attempts to probe the mysteries of the interior, and countless minor expeditions have gone into the heart of the Dark Continent never to be seen or heard of again.

AUSTRALIAN EXPLORATIONS.

The exploration of Australia has been a strictly English enterprise. The exploration of the interior was begun immediately after the founding of the convict settlement in Botany Bay in 1815. The first important expedition was that led by Edward John Eyre in 1841 from Adelaide to King George's Sound, 1,040 miles distant. The Darling and Murray Rivers were explored by Captain Stuart in 1844-45, and he succeeded in reaching a point within a short distance of the interior of the continent. After this development was rapid. Augustus Gregory in 1856 ascended the Victoria River to its source, made a long and painful journey to the Gulf of Carpentaria and arrived at Brisbane, having marched a distance of 6,500 miles through absolutely new territory. Queensland was explored in 1843-6 by Leichardt, and in 1857-60 the great lakes and mountain ranges of West Australia were explored by Warburton, McDouall, Stuart, Swinndon and a host of others. South Australia received a careful survey and exploration at the hands of the McKinley expedition of 1861-2. From 1875 until the present time expeditions have been constantly in the field, opening new territory, and discovering lakes and rivers theretofore unknown.

MARVELOUS MACHINERY.

There is a constant multiplication of labor-saving machines. Patents are being applied for and issued daily on mechanical constructions designed either to aid or supplant man-power. There is no field of industry, however unimportant, which has not been invaded by the inventor with a view to minimizing the human effort required therein to produce its quota of material.

The sewing machine is probably the most familiar as well as one of the most important of labor-saving devices. Its value as a labor saver is incalculable when one considers that in the United States alone there are 700,000 manufactured annually. America is the sewing machine center of the world. The tenth day of September, 1846, may justly be considered the birthday of the sewing machine—that is, the machine as we know it to-day. On that date Elias Howe, to whom has been accorded the title of father of the sewing machine, took out patents on a practical invention, to which have been constantly added improvements, until there now seems nothing lacking to its perfection. It is a remarkable fact that notwithstanding the sewing machine's being originally the idea of an Englishman, Americans, and Americans alone, have developed that idea. The records of the English Patent Office show that Thomas Saint patented a sewing machine in the latter part of the Eighteenth Century. A clumsy and archaic device was this initial effort as compared with the beautiful mechanism of the modern machine. Saint's machine sewed with a chain stitch, an awl forming the hole, and a needle with a notch in its pointed end carried the thread through the cloth and formed a loop. An equally crude attempt was made by Thimonnier, a Frenchman, in 1830. Walter Hunt, of New York, invented a machine in 1834, but his application for patent was rejected on the ground of abandonment.

Howe's struggle against adversity while perfecting the priceless secret

which lay hidden in his brain, and his final triumph, read like a page of romance. When the father of the sewing machine first conceived the idea of his invention he was absolutely ignorant of the early attempts of his predecessors. Had he known of the attempts of Saint and Thimonnier his road to success might have been many years shorter. Howe's first device was a needle pointed at both ends, and having an eye in the center. He soon abandoned this idea. Then there came to him the happy thought, all his own, of using two separate threads, one in the needle and the other under the cloth, and forming a stitch by the co-operation of the shuttle. This was in 1844, and in 1845 he had constructed a machine along these lines, on which he sewed two complete suits of clothes for himself. Flushed with triumph, the inventor submitted his machine to the inspection of the tailors, to be met not with encouragement, but with suspicion and derision, although the machine beat five of the swiftest sewers. After securing his patent, Howe, discouraged by the treatment which his countrymen had accorded him, betook himself to London with his "hobby." Here he fared no better, and several years later returned to America, penniless, to discover that in his absence the mechanical world had awakened to its possibilities and that his shuttle machine was being built and sold right and left. After a bitter contest Howe was given the custody and control of the child of his brain. In pronouncing the verdict in Howe's suit against I. M. Singer & Company, decreed in 1854, Judge Sprague, of Massachusetts, observed that "there is no evidence in this case that leaves the shadow of a doubt that, for all the benefit bestowed upon the public by the introduction of the sewing machine, the public is indebted to Mr. Howe."

Some idea of the patient investigation, deep thought, time and money that have been spent in perfecting the modern sewing machine may be gained from the fact that from 1842 to 1898 more than 7,000 patents have been granted

on its various improvements and modifications.

It is in the use of sewing machines in factories that the greatest revolution has been effected. The manufactures in which sewing machines are essential are awnings, tents, sails, bags, book-binding, boots and shoes, clothing for men and women, corsets, flags, banners, men's furnishing goods, gloves, mittens, hats, caps, pocketbooks, rubber and elastic goods, shirts, saddlery and harness. The largest sewing machine in the world is in operation in Leeds. It weighs 6,500 pounds and sews cotton belting. One of the most beneficial effects of the sewing machine, next in importance to its value as a labor saver, is the cheapening of clothing. The enormous increase during the last twenty years in the factory production of ready-made clothing has been coincident with and largely the result of the invention of special appliances and attachments adapting the sewing machine to factory operation in the performance of all stitching processes, including buttonhole and eyelet making, attaching buttons, staying seams, inserting whalebones, etc., etc.

The evolution of the textile industry has been as rapid as it is picturesque. It is almost impossible to associate the whirr of the spinning wheel of the olden time with the terrific roar of the modern textile factory, and yet less than a hundred years ago the spinning wheel was found in the house of every thrifty man or woman. The labor-saving machines which have contributed to make the industry what it is to-day have all been inventions of the past sixty years. Before then the various processes of manufacture were in a transitory state of existence. In 1851 mechanical methods, systems and comparative perfections of product became known to the world at the London International Exhibit, and from that time down to the present there has been a succession of clever inventions, the ultimate object of which was the saving of human labor. No manufacture offers a more striking illustration of this apparent displacement of man by machine.

With the power loom the weaver now weaves 180 picks per minute, whereas with the old hand loom he could weave but sixty. When the power loom was first introduced one weaver was required for each loom, and still more recent improvements have made it possible for one operative to attend to ten looms. The ring frame improvements in the spinning process have displaced that line of labor to such an extent that but one-third the number of operatives formerly required is now necessary. With the single spindle hand wheel one spinner could spin five skeins of number 32 twist in fifty-six hours. The modern mule spinning machine, containing 2,214 spindles, produces 55,098 skeins of the same thread in the same time. With the old hand loom one weaver could weave forty-two yards of coarse cotton per week; now a single operator can turn out 3,000 yards of the same product in the same time. It is computed that in the manufacture of cotton goods alone improved machinery has reduced muscular labor 50 per cent. in the production of the same quality of goods.

So perfect is the equipment of the modern cotton factory throughout that the first processes through which a bale of cotton must pass are entirely automatic. The bale is broken open by machinery, thrown upon an endless chain, which carries it up through the mill and breaks and picks it to pieces. It then passes through machines that take out the dirt, and is run through great rollers, which separate the strands and joins them together again almost in the form of yarn. It then passes into a machine which converts the soft mass into what resembles cotton batting, whence it goes to the carding machine. This mechanism contains teeth so fine that thousands of them are on a square foot of surface. These brush and comb the cotton as it passes through them, and turn it out in a great soft white rope, which is seized by a series of machines which twist it tighter and tighter as it passes from one to another until it has been drawn out to the required fineness. It is now ready for

the weaving room, and in five minutes the soulless machine has done an amount of work which would require the old time spinner long years of patient, unceasing toil. The thread comes to the weaving room wound on spindles, and another set of threads are wound upon rollers of the width of the cloth. These are to make the warp of the cloth. The spindles which move in and out with beautiful precision form the warp. The only human agency required in the actual process of weaving a piece of cotton is a girl or man to attend the loom and keep an eye on the shuttle, which flies back and forth about 150 times every minute. So great has been the improvement of modern machinery over that used sixty years ago that the productive capacity of a spindle to-day is 44 per cent. greater than it was then, and the industry itself has increased in production almost 900 per cent.

What is true of the cotton manufacture is likewise so of the wool-weaving industry. Improvements in machinery and labor-saving methods have expanded the annual product from \$70,000,000 in 1850 to nearly \$300,000,000. The chief mechanical factors responsible for this vast increase are the loom and the comb, now brought to a remarkable state of efficiency. The combing machine, which is almost identical to that used in cotton making, is of comparative recent development. The introduction of the improved machine about twenty-seven years ago completely revolutionized the wool industry, with a consequent increase in productiveness of about \$100,000,000 and a proportionately infinite decrease of labor.

The inventive genius of mankind has not despised the plebeian, but useful, nail, and labor-saving mechanisms for its output are so successful that the cost of production of a single keg of nails is infinitesimal. Indeed so cheap have wire nails become that if a carpenter drops one it is cheaper for him to let it lie than to stop and pick it up. It is claimed that one keg out of five is never used, but goes to waste. A statis-

tician who recently figured this out, on the assumption that it takes a carpenter ten seconds to pick up a nail, and his time is worth thirty cents an hour, computes that the recovery of the dropped nail would cost 0.083 cent; while the cost of an individual sixpenny nail is 0.0077. Such a calculation brings out clearly the marvelous reduction in prices due to inventive genius. This is true of every item which would come under the cover of a hardware dealer's catalogue. There are in machine shops all over the country grey-haired mechanics who well remember the time when the ideas of machine-made files were held up to scorn, and when all first-class, well-known makes of files were hand cut. It would be difficult for them to now tell the difference between a hand-made and a machine-made file. Within the past few years machines have been making files which cannot be approached by the most expert file cutters of Sheffield. The great difficulty in perfecting the file-cutting machine was the inability to cut uneven teeth, for the teeth of a file are not so even as they look. This irregularity in the case of hand-made files, was the evidence of extraordinary skill, and it was on this point that the hand workers considered their position unassailable. The successful machine cuts the teeth with a loose chisel, and the feed is such that the gradation of width and depth gives the teeth that unevenness so desirable. Equally incredulous were the old-school mechanics over the possibilities of the machine-made rasp, which late years have seen brought to a high state of mechanical perfection.

Pins, like nails, are such a cheap commodity that it is an extravagant waste of time to pick up a dropped one from the floor. And yet not so very long ago it took twelve to fourteen men to make a pin—that is, there were twelve or fourteen processes in its manufacture, each requiring performance separately and by a different hand. Now one machine turns out a steady stream of pins at the rate of more than two hundred a minute. Until the Nineteenth Century, particularly

the latter half of it, pins have been esteemed almost as dearly as jewels and fine laces. The term "pin money" is significant of the value attached to the article. One of the laws of the ancient pin makers of Paris was that no maker should open more than one shop for the sale of his ware, except on New Year's Eve and New Year's Day. Then the court ladies obtained money from their husbands and rushed to the pin shops to lay in their yearly supply. Even so late as 1761 John and Thomas Stevenson inserted a modest advertisement in a Boston newspaper informing their customers that among other elegancies they had imported pins and needles.

Simple and insignificant as is the pin in appearance, its manufacture involves a most complicated process, and much intelligent thought and ingenuity has been expended upon the perfection of mechanism that contributes to its immense production. The wire is prepared by drawing it from an immense coil through an aperture the size of the pin wanted. It then passes into a machine through a hole and between a series of iron pegs, which straighten it and hold it in place. A pair of pincers pulls it along and thrusts the end of the wire through a hole in an iron plate, on the other side of which a little hammer beats on the end of the wire and thus forms the head of the pin. Then a knife descends and cuts it off to the required length. The pin falls into a groove, from which it hangs suspended by the head and with the lower end exposed to the action of a cylinder by which process the pin is pointed. These processes are all performed with such rapidity that there is an endless stream of pins falling from the end of the machine. They next pass between two grinding wheels and are forced against a rapidly moving band faced with emery cloth, which gives them a still sharper point. After they are dipped in the polishing tub of oil, where they receive a brilliant polish and finish, they are ready for the sticker, where they fall from a hopper on an inclined plane containing a

number of slits. The pins are caught in these slits, point downward, and slide along an apparatus which inserts them in paper. This mechanism is perhaps the most beautiful and ingenious of all the complicated contrivances that help in the making and manipulation of the pin. It does its work at the rate of 100,000 pins per hour, and yet so delicate is its construction that a single bent or imperfect pin will cause it to stop feeding until the obstruction is removed by the attendant.

Machinery for the cheap and rapid production of buttons of all kinds is a notable acquisition to Nineteenth Century industry. Two hundred years ago there were not so many buttons in the whole world as one will find to-day in the smallest country "general" store, and each one of these buttons was made by hand. Less than fifty years ago there was not a single button factory in the United States and practically no machinery for its production in Europe. Buttons were strictly an imported luxury, and the common people had to put up with very common grades, and not many of such kinds, for buttons were an expensive convenience. Now they are so cheap as to justify the use of the phrase "not worth a button." It is computed that the people of the United States alone unbutton one billion four hundred million buttons every night, when they get ready to go to bed. Samuel Williston, of Easthampton, Mass., started the button industry in the United States in 1848. Williston was a country storekeeper who failed in business, and whose wife covered buttons to eke out a miserable existence. Williston's attention being drawn to the subject, he soon invented a machine to do the work of covering the old-fashioned wooden button molds, which invention not only brought him a fortune, but excited the ambition of other inventors in the same direction. The machines used in making buttons are necessarily multitudinous, and although their product is simple the machines themselves are of the most clever mechanism.

This history of American progress is contemporaneous with the growth of the paper trade, and that growth owes its evolution entirely to the labor-saving machinery which has been introduced into the industry. Chief among these mechanisms was the invention of Louis Robert, which revolutionized the paper business. This machine was perfected and patented early in the century by Fourdrinier, and it remains to-day, with multitudinous improvements, the standard paper maker of the world. In 1860 a German named Voelter perfected a system whereby wood fibre was substituted for rags, and the problem of still cheaper paper was solved. To such perfection has this process of Voelter's been carried that if the distance were destroyed, the tall spruce tree of to-day might supply the fibre for to-morrow's newspaper. The material out of which wood fibre paper is made is usually spruce timber. The huge circular saws of this machine cut the logs into the proper length for the splitting machine; another machine removes the knots, after which it is but a short journey to the grinders, which reduce the wood into a pulp by huge revolving grindstones. From the moment the log leaves the hands of the grindstone feeder the work of man is finished. From that point until the huge white roll of paper is put into the packers' hands the machinery has done all the work. The pulp, in either its raw state as it leaves the pulp mill, or in the storage condition, is fed into the engine, which is a simple contrivance resembling the threshing machine in its construction. A cylinder covered with steel teeth revolves in a tub of pulp, which has been thinned with water. In opposition to this cylindrical motion is a bed of steel teeth, so arranged that those in the revolving cylinder will pass those in the bed. This process breaks the pulp into fibre of proper length and at the same time mixes the pulp with water. When the large vat of pulp has been reduced to the proper consistency the mash is transferred to a receptacle, where it awaits the call of the paper machine.

The thoroughly mixed pulp is then fed on to an endless brass wire cloth, the meshes of which allow the water to escape as it moves. The wire cloth is kept in a vibrating motion, thus accelerating the flow of water and assisting in the knitting of the fibre. An endless web of felt takes the soft mass of refined pulp, and conducts it through several large, cold rollers. This operation removes much of the latent moisture and presses the beds of fibre into closely knit strips, which are carried through a succession of hot rollers, whence the paper comes out dry and firm. The calender process completes the operation, and the paper is automatically wound into immense rolls measuring three feet in diameter. But the product turned out by the foregoing process is simply paper in its most primitive form, e. g., for wrapping or common printing uses. Inventors have not been contented to allow this commodity to remain in such a comparatively narrow field of utility. They have devised processes whereby we have paper car wheels, and to some extent, in Russia and Germany, railroad trains are run on paper rails. We have paper horseshoes, paper dress materials, trunks and dishes. In Japan paper houses are said to be common, and in this country paper boats are in daily use, as are also paper pipes for carrying water, steam and sewage.

The story of the hat is but an unceasing buzz of marvelous machinery from the moment the fur is deposited in the "devil," until it is ready for the wearer's head. The ordinary felt hat of the present day is made almost entirely of animal matter, the only vegetable material entering into its construction being the cotton back of the satin of which the linings are made. The fur which has been cut from the hide by a mechanical process is thoroughly sifted by the teeth of the "devil," a cone-shaped box through which a current of air passes. The fur is then ready for the blowing machine, the latest of which is an English invention. This machine consists of a box forty feet long and about four feet square.

This process sorts the hair from the fur. The fur, being lighter than the hair, floats into one compartment, while the hair remains in another. Next is the forming machine, which consists of a wide oil cloth apron, a pair of feed rolls, picker, a metallic drum, an open turn table and a powerful exhaust fan. The fan creates a current of air into which the fur is thrown from the drum to the cone. When the fur is all on the cone, just enough for one hat, it is wrapped in wet cloths and immersed in hot water, where it remains a moment before going to the hands of the hardener. Thence it goes to the "sizing" machine, the shaving machine and the "second sizing" machine, by which time it is ready for the stiffening process. Not until it has been blocked, however, does the cone of fur bear the least resemblance to a hat. The blocking, which is entirely mechanical, is done by immersing the bodies in hot water and shaping them, one at a time, over blocks suited to the hat's final style and shape. The dyeing process which follows that of blocking is also purely mechanical. Then follows the finishing. In this process the hat is taken to a steaming table where it is held in live steam until it becomes soft enough to pull over the block which gives the crown its final shape. After this follows the stiffening, curling and trimming operations, if it be a derby hat. Soft hats are treated essentially the same as stiff, except some details of the stiffening process. While there is still some hand work done in the later stages of the making of a felt hat in an American factory, such a thing is almost unknown in an English factory. During the last twenty-five years there has been more machinery introduced into American hat factories than in any prior period. The honors for the invention of the improved machinery are about equally divided between England and America. While the English machines and systems have greatly improved the quality, the Yankee machines have made the present product possible, for without the forming machine, an American in-

vention, the present output at present prices would be absolutely impossible.

A unique piece of automatic machinery invented for practical purposes is the slot machine. So numerous are they and so varied are the needs which they fill—and fill successfully—that they may justly be regarded as one of the great labor-saving devices of the age.

Although restricted solely to the use of physicists, by far the most remarkable labor-saving mechanism in the world is the ruling machine in the physical laboratory of the John Hopkins University, at Baltimore. This marvelous machine, with its diamond point, rules 15,000, 40,000 or 125,000 lines to the square inch; which figures represent an amount of human labor not only infinite in duration, but absolutely impossible of attainment. This machine, designed by Prof. Henry A. Rowland, of the University, and constructed by Theodore Schneider, the machinist of the University, is for the purpose of ruling lines on polished pieces of metal so as to form what physicists call a "grating." All physicists and investigators of the sun's rays are dependent upon this little machine for their gratings, it being the only one in the world. The purpose of the grating is the dividing of a ray of sunlight into its component parts the ordinary prism, which divides the ray into the seven primary colors being the simplest method. But the limit of research with the old-fashioned prism has long passed, physicists being able to get further into the subject by means of the gratings, and the larger the number of gratings the better the ray is reflected. These lines are so close together that they cannot be seen with the naked eye, but under the microscope every line is perfectly distinct and absolutely accurate. Were there the slightest variation in the parallelism the grating would be entirely useless for scientific purposes. It is claimed for Prof. Rowland's machine that if a diamond of sufficient strength could be secured a grating of a million lines to the inch could be procured. The machine sits on three legs and has a stout

frame, the motive power being a little hydraulic engine. It is driven by a belt attached to a driving wheel of solid steel, a crank being turned at the same time on the other end of the shaft. This crank moves the carriage that pushes the diamond point back and forward over the surface of the grating. Every time the diamond makes a stroke the metal plate beneath moves an infinitesimal space. The carriage which carries the plate is moved by a steel screw. In order that this screw might be absolutely perfect it was ground under water kept at a certain temperature. If made in the air, or had the temperature of the water varied, the expansion would have caused the threads to vary slightly. This would have caused the carriage to vary, and as a consequence the spaces between the grooves would not be equal. Foreign universities have tried to make as good a machine, but without success. So the Rowland "gratings" supply the spectroscopes for all the universities of the world.

One of the most phenomenal labor savers in the world is the giant crane that was used in lifting stone on the sea wall, constructed at Peterhead on the north coast of Scotland. It was capable of lifting one hundred tons, and could pick up a modern locomotive with as much ease as the same locomotive would draw a train of cars. It could lift the cubic contents of 100 car loads, and scatter the material over a wide section of the landscape. So long and powerful was its arms that it could set a sixty-ton block in the sea 100 feet deep and seventy-two feet from the outer edge of the masonry wall. The work of this machine alone displaced two thousand men, who otherwise would have been daily employed on the building of the wall at Peterhead.

The perfection of mechanism obtained in very recent years has reduced the manufacture of sugar to a point where it becomes almost entirely automatic. The early part of the last century the life of the sugar-maker was synonymous with that of the traditional galley slave. Under a burning sky he

cut the cane, stalk by stalk, with a common knife, a long and tedious task; then he piled it in tumbrels and carted it away to the "sugar house," where by a medieval process, and with much waste, it was converted into sugar and molasses. Now the cane is dumped on a cane-carrier, an endless traveling conveyor of wooden slats. This feeds into the cutter, consisting of two large, corrugated iron rolls, which crush and cut the cane into strips six inches long. This process extracts 60 per cent. of the cane. The juice which has escaped into a tank below, is automatically pumped and strained into a higher tank, whence it flows into a large open caldron. Then the juice is boiled to evaporate the water. The vacuum-process pan, invented by Norbert Rillieux, of New Orleans, has completely superseded the old method of doing this, which method consisted of running the liquid through a series of open pans. The Rillieux vacuum pans are cylindrical tanks, with facilities for conveying the steam to the next pan. Inside each pan is a huge drum with copper tubes, through which the juice circulates. Exhaust steam of a temperature all the way from 190 to 208 degrees Fahr. is admitted into the drum and around the pipes. But the syrup does not boil, as a partial vacuum is maintained in that portion of the pan in which the juice circulates. The fluid is thus kept just below the boiling point sufficient to evaporate in the form of steam. The steam coming off the first vacuum pan boils the juice brought in from the first pan, because a better vacuum is maintained in the second pan. From the second pan the exhaust steam passes on to the third pan in the same way, and if the process is of the "quadruple effect," it will in turn pass on to the fourth pan, each pan maintaining a better vacuum than the preceding. In the last pan the juice has attained the consistency of a thick-syrup, when it passes into receptacles for cooling and crystallization. A machine which works with a centrifugal motion at the rate of about one thousand revolutions per minute stirs this mass. By centrifug-

gal force the molasses is thrown out in three or four minutes. Centrifugal force entirely eliminates the molasses, while the grains of sugar have been retained in a rotating basket. The pulling of a lever puts this basket in motion, and it whirls about at a speed of one thousand revolutions per minute. The sugar when it comes out of this basket, after three of four minutes' whirling, is white and ready for the refining process, in which there have also been many improvements and inventions. The sugar is first dissolved in hot water, and then pumped into tanks, whence it flows through a series of cylindrical filters. A vacuum pan operation, similar in principle to the first evaporation process, renders the composition absolutely dry. And after passing through another centrifugal machine it emerges as granulated white sugar. Machinery for the reduction of beet juice to sugar is on nearly the same principle as that used for the cane-sugar industry. The most popular of these machines is that which works on the diffusion process. By this method the beets are sliced and circulated in water until the saccharine matter is removed. The juice so obtained is then strained and put through a process of carbonic acid saturation, after which it is filtered and evaporated.

There is indeed scarcely any industry of any magnitude or importance whatever to which labor-saving machinery has not been applied. In the manufacture of brooms there have been such great improvements of methods in various departments that the number of broom-makers of the United States has been reduced more than one-half, although the product has more than doubled in quantity. In the manufacture of carpets recent processes have displaced twenty times the number of persons now necessary. By the old methods of spinning the carpet material it required seventy-five to a hundred times the number of operatives now employed to do the same amount of work. By the invention of the carpet-measuring machine, which measures and brushes the product simultaneously, one

operator does the work formerly required of fifteen men. Carriages and wagons have also been affected by improved machinery. The one-time independent wagonmaker has suffered the same eclipse as has the shoemaker. In the instance of agricultural implements, labor-saving machinery has displaced fully 50 per cent. of the muscular effort formerly employed; also in the improved method of brick-making, in the making of fire-brick, in the cutlery industry and also in the manufacture of small arms. A bread kneading machine put into operation in San Francisco is doing the work formerly done by a hundred men. The painting machine used to whitewash the buildings at the World's Fair was operated by two men, who by its aid, did as much work as 200 men working by hand. The mimeograph, the patent letter-press, and a host of other office conveniences have dispensed with an immense amount of clerical help in the business world.

The remarkable machinery that has been invented for all manner of work is not more wonderful than the machinery, or machine tools which make the building of such mechanisms possible. The forming of a hole for a screw, a bolt or a rivet is apparently a very simple operation, but to do this work accurately and rapidly has engaged the attention of the most ingenious minds of the day, and as a result there are drilling machines, boring machines, punching machines and riveting machines innumerable. As a labor-saving mechanism nothing can be more efficient than the multiple drills that have made their appearance only in recent years. Among these are the two and three-spindle drills which makes the holes by which railroad ties are connected. There are the four, six and eight-spindle drilling machines for boring holes in rows at spaced distances. A universal drilling machine, built by William Sellers & Company, drills a hole in any direction. A radial drilling machine, built by the same firm, will make a hole anywhere in any direction within a radius of eighty-three inches.

Boring machines, of both horizontal and vertical form, have done much towards the production of cheap machinery. Punching machines, capable of exerting a punching force of half a million pounds, multiple punching machines, capable of making six holes at once, and punching machines combined with machinery for shearing, are some of the colossal examples of recently invented machinery. Shearing machines designed for trimming the edges of iron plates can cut off an edge sixty inches long and an inch thick. Riveting machines, of a strength and capacity sufficient to fasten a rivet in the center of a plate thirty-two feet square, are a leading factor in the making of boilers. There is also the wheel-press, which exerts a pressure of thirty tons when employed to put a car wheel on its axle. There are planing machines to reduce a level surface by shaving parallel lines. Rotary planers, having all the way from twenty-five to seventy-five tools affixed on a wheel, are much used in bridge-building. The mortising of door frames is done by means of the slotting machine, which is invaluable as a labor saver. For finishing and shaping the parts of machinery there is employed what is called a milling machine, which operates by means of rotating cutters. Stamping presses, used to shape parts of metal, all almost indispensable in all branches of machinery making; a special machine of this kind is that used in the Philadelphia mint. This exerts a pressure of two million pounds. Machines for the bending and straightening of plates, for forging and for grinding drills are other mechanical triumphs in this category.

There are few branches of mechanical construction which do not employ their own peculiar lathe, but they are all constructed on the same principle—that of a frame having a pointed center at each end. One of these is called the live center, because it has a rotary motion, the other is the dead center, it having no motion. The work to be turned is hung between these centers. The mandrel of the live center is propelled

by pulleys, and the cutting tool is mounted on a carriage in such manner that the operator can guide it back and forth over the surface of the material, cutting it in almost any circular or conic form. The greatest achievement in the way of such a tool is the Blanchard lathe, so-called from its inventor, and which is so perfect in its mechanism as to be able to cut material into almost any desired shape. Strange as it may seem, by its use articles in shape so unlike in geometrical forms, as gun-barrels, shoemakers' lasts, etc., can be turned on a lathe. It is as simple a contrivance as it is wonderful. In ordinary lathe the work revolves rapidly and the cutting tool is stationary or only shifts its position slowly to accommodate fresh portions of the work, while in the Blanchard lathe the work is made slowly to rotate and the cutting tools revolve with great rapidity. The pattern and work being fixed in similar and parallel positions they always continue so at every revolution. The whole arrangement is self-acting so that when once the pattern and the rough block of wood are placed in position the machine completes the work and reproduces an exact duplicate of the shape of the pattern.

ENGINEERING.

"Give me a fulcrum on which to rest, and I will move the earth," said Archimedes when he discovered the lever. The modern engineer has found a standing point and he literally moves the earth.

To no industry has the engineer given a greater share of his art than to that of perfecting everything connected with railroading, and it is chiefly in the United States that this development has taken place. The steel rail as we know it to-day is in itself a wonderful piece of engineering. Fifty years ago the rail was of wrought-iron and shaped like a pear-head, but its evolution under the hands of the engineer has made it of steel and fitted it in every way for the work that it has to perform. Simple as it is, there is a reason for every

curve, dimension and angle. It is made expressly for the purpose of sustaining its heavy loads and standing the impact of the countless blows its receives.

So, too, the location of the railroad and the determination of exactly where every foot of the track shall be laid is an engineering feat. In the early days it was thought impossible for a locomotive to climb grades. The engineer has found just what grades the locomotive will climb and locates his track accordingly. Tunnels and great rivers were supposed to present practically unsurmountable obstacles, but the patient work of the engineer has shown that the greatest mountains might be pierced and the greatest chasms bridged. Railways can be built wherever it is profitable to build them.

Engineers of the olden time worked with stone, while those of to-day use steel. Fifty years ago bridges were built almost entirely of wood and stone. As long ago as 1779 the first iron bridge in England was built, and with 100-foot span and 370 tons of iron used in construction, it was the wonder of a generation, although it seems puny enough compared to the great Forth bridge of to-day, with 51,000 tons of steel. How conditions have changed since 1779 is shown by the fact that since 1870 it has been a law in Russia that no bridges shall be made of wood. Yet the Howe wooden truss bridge of 1840 was regarded as a wonder in its days, and some of them are still doing excellent service, the most famous being Wernberg's "Colossus," with 240 feet span over the Schuylkill.

Small streams were bridged at first and then the larger rivers were crossed, until now there is talk of bridging the English Channel, making a railway journey possible from London to Paris, and the bridge would probably be built were it not that it would destroy the military advantages possessed by England through its insular position. In the United States alone there are now over 3,000 miles of bridgework, enough to form a highway across the Continent. This progress has been made possible by the use of iron and steel, the applica-

tion of new theories of forces. The first attempt to use iron exclusively for long spans was tubular bridge. Stephenson and Harrison had finished in 1849 the high-level bridge at Newcastle-on-Tyne. The first iron bridge in the United States was built at Frankfort, N. Y., in 1840.

By the introduction of the suspension bridge a great stride was made in bridge-building. Telford, a Scotch engineer, designed the first bridge across the Menai Straits in 1818, and it was opened in 1826, with a span of 579 feet and a roadway 100 feet above the water level. Other suspension bridges followed of increasing size. The general principle of the suspension bridge is exemplified in a chain hanging between two fixed points on the same level. If two chains were placed parallel to each other a roadway for a bridge might be formed by laying planks across it, but the ascent and descent would be necessarily steep. No amount of force could stretch the chains perfectly level, as even a small piece of straight cord cannot be stretched horizontally in a perfectly straight line. It was a happy idea to hang the roadway from chains, for then the roadway would remain perfectly level if built so as to be level after the curve had been figured. The suspension bridge built by Roebling in 1852 had a span of 800 feet. It was followed by the Clifton bridge, opened in 1864. The Clifton bridge at Niagara Falls, and the bridges at Pittsburg and Cincinnati are of this type. The largest of all is the Brooklyn bridge, erected at a cost of \$15,500,000, and having a clear water-way of 1,595 1-2 feet. It was begun in 1870 and opened May 24, 1883. Each cable contains 5,296 parallel (not twisted) galvanized steel oil-coated wire, closely wrapped into a solid cylinder 15 3-4 inches in diameter, and the permanent weight suspended from these gigantic cables is 14,680 tons.

The favorite form of bridge-building at present is the cantilever system, the first metal bridge of that type being Shaler Smith's cantilever over the Kentucky River, erected in 1877. The principle of the cantilever is very simple.

A powerful structure of steel, in shape not unlike the walking-beam of a paddle steamer, rests upon a pier. The weight on one side balances that on the other, but the arms of the two cantilevers do not meet. Imagine an engine's walking beam thirteen hundred feet long—almost a quarter of a mile—resting upon its center so that it projects in either direction 675 feet. Next fancy two such cantilevers so placed that their ends leave an abyss of 350 feet between them. This space is filled with an ordinary girder bridge, the ends of the two cantilevers serving as piers. The Forth bridge, built on this principle and opened in 1890, is the largest spanned bridge, having a length of 8,098 feet. It is composed of three double cantilevers; a central one of 1,620 feet resting on a pier built on the Island of Inchgarvie, two 1,514 feet in length joined to the central cantilever by girders of 350 feet span. The highest elevation of the bridge is 361 feet over the piers. Fifty-one thousand tons of steel were used in the construction of the bridge and fifty-six lives were lost during its erection, which occupied seven years and gave employment to as many as 5,000 men at one time. The total cost of this bridge, which is across the Firth of Forth at Queensbury, Scotland, was \$16,000,000. The bridge at Memphis, Tenn., is the longest cantilever bridge in the United States, the greatest of its three spans being 720 feet.

Improvements in sinking the foundations have been nearly as great as those in raising the superstructure. The caisson is an application of the diving-bell that has simplified the work of sinking piers, and a German inventor has recently devised a process by which soft earth can be frozen and then dug out as if it were solid rock.

Modern engineering has made tunneling a comparatively simple operation. The tunnel is as old as the bridge, but its development has been no less remarkable. The early tunnels in the century required the expenditure of an enormous amount of time, but new devices for rock-boring and the removal of soft earth have simplified matters.

One of the earliest known tunnels, said to have been constructed to drain the plateau on which stands the City of Mexico, pierced the Nochistengo ridge for six miles. It was destroyed during a flood and was replaced by an open cut in 1608. But it required more than a century to build that tunnel with the devices then in the possession of engineers. The work was done almost entirely by hand and although the workmen were paid only 9 cents a day, the cost was \$6,000,000. Aside from the free workmen all convicts sentenced to hard labor were put to work on the tunnel, which cost the lives of more than 100,000 workmen.

Nowadays machinery has replaced hand labor to a great extent, and there is no such great sacrifice of men required. This has made possible the building of tunnels of great length. The machine rock drill, invented by J. J. Couch, an American, in 1849, was first used in tunneling Mont Cenis, and made possible the Hoosac tunnel. Mont Cenis tunnel was long one of the wonders of the world. Nearly eight miles in length, it extends from Madane to Bardonneche under the Col de Frejus. The work was begun in 1857, with rock-boring machines, but these proving impractical, for four years the workmen drilled holes and blasted the rock by manual labor. Improvements in the machinery invented by Couch then made possible the use of machinery. Before the machines were employed progress could be made at the rate of eighteen inches per day; towards the close, when the rock-boring machinery was in full working order, as much as 400 feet per month was excavated. From 1857 to 1860 by hand labor alone 1,646 meters were excavated; from 1861 to 1870 the remaining 10,587 meters were completed by machine.

Most remarkable of tunnels up to 1900 was the St. Gothard, piercing the Alps. Work was begun in September, 1872, at each end, and it is a remarkable feat of civil engineering that the two openings met, in spite of the difficulty of the survey, with a variation of only 2 inches horizontally and 13

inches laterally. The tunnel is 9 1-2 miles long and cost about \$700 per lineal yard. The first passenger train ran through the tunnel on November 1, 1881, thus making possible the passing of the Alps at a point where before it had been possible only to mountaineers. Hannibal himself could not have led an army over the Alps at that point. The motive power of the rock-drilling machines was actuated, as was the case with the Mont Cenis tunnel, by compressed air, and the power used for compressing the air was a head of water.

The Simplon tunnel, though begun in the 19th Century, was not completed until the 20th. It superseded the Simplon Pass road, begun in 1800 by Napoleon, who wished a military road to Italy, and built it in six years, at an expenditure of \$4,000,000 and the loss of numerous lives. The Simplon tunnel is 12¼ miles long, making it the longest in the world. Brandt rotary hydraulic drilling machines were used in its construction with a pressure of from 1,000 to 1,500 pounds to the square inch. Six or eight machines were used at each heading. The Brandt machine has three cutting points like claws, with a rotary movement, and works by hydraulic pressure.

The rock-boring machine known as the Burleigh, perfected in 1873, gave a great impetus to tunneling. It looks like a big syringe, supported upon a tripod, and is worked by compressed air. It eats holes two inches in diameter in solid granite, and makes honeycomb of it as easily as a schoolboy would demolish a small sponge cake. It pounds away at the rate of 200 strokes a minute, in which time it progresses forward about twelve inches, keeping the holes free of the pounded rock. The principal feature of the machine is that it imitates in every way the action of the quarryman in boring a rock. Another type of rock-boring machine is the diamond drill, which surpasses all others in the rapidity with which it eats its way through solid rock.

Rock-boring is comparatively easy nowadays. When soft material is en-

countered the work is more difficult, it being necessary to keep the material from clogging the excavation already made. A device has been invented to overcome this, and it was used in the railroad tunnel under the St. Clair River at Port Huron. It is called a shield, and is generally used in cities for smaller tunnels. In the St. Clair tunnel a great cylinder weighing more than 60 tons, 20 feet in diameter, and 16 feet long, was driven into the blue clay, which constituted the entire bottom of the river, with as great ease as cakes of soap can be carved out of a general mass. Inside this "shield" twenty-two men worked removing the dirt. As fast as the shield was pushed forward, which was 2 feet at a time, the clay thus brought inside was dug out to the end of the cylinder. Then the hydraulic jacks were again started and slowly but irresistibly the immense iron tube moved another two feet into the solid earth ahead of it. Each jack had a power of 3,000 tons and the combined power behind the shield was more than 400,000 tons.

When water floods the work there is great risk. It was necessary to pump 2,000 gallons of water a minute to prevent the flooding of the Kilsby tunnel, and in the construction of the Severn tunnel in England (1873-85), which has a length of 4 1-3 miles, the tunnel was flooded for a year by the tapping of a large spring, and the erection of permanent pumping engines was made necessary.

The canals of the century are not the greatest in length. There is one in China nearly 700 miles long, the longest in the world, that dates back to the Thirteenth Century. The era of canal opening in the United States began early, and the Erie canal running from Albany to Buffalo is 351.8 miles in length, and was opened in 1825. But these canal enterprises have been dwarfed as engineering enterprises and in importance by the Suez canal, which is regarded by many as the greatest engineering feat of the world. While the ancient Egyptians did not cut directly through the isthmus, Herodotus de-

scribes a canal from Suez to the Nile, but it became clogged with sand, and until DeLesseps dug his great ditch it was regarded as necessary for all ships to make the journey around Africa to reach the Indies. The isthmus made necessary a journey of 15,000 miles, and a glance at the map of Africa will show the enormous saving in time which it effects. The journey around Africa was so great that it was to avoid this that Columbus, ignorant of the size of the world, made his journey westward that led to the discovery of America.

The story of the canal is a thrilling romance. It was conceived by DeLesseps in 1834, twenty years before he got his concession. Then followed intrigues and diplomacy with Turkey and foreign powers before he could get permission to work. Then it became necessary to raise the enormous capital of \$92,000,000 which it cost. In spite of the obstacles the objections were finally overcome and the canal built, being opened in November, 1869.

The Suez canal is 88 geographical or about 100 statute miles long. The engineering difficulties were enormous. The minimum depth is 26 feet, and this was necessary because of the size of the vessels which would use it. Its average width is 25 yards. It had to be dug through sand, and it was made possible only by the invention of dredges to do the work. But for these the canal would never have been built through the sand. These dredges were the contrivance of one of the contractors. The use of the dredging machines was prepared for by digging out a rough trough by spade work and as soon as it had been dug to the depth of from six to twelve feet, the water was let in. After the water was let in the steam dredges were floated down the stream, moored against the bank and set to work. There were two kinds of dredges. One, known as couloir, was a large barge of wood supporting an endless chain of heavy iron buckets which scooped up the mud and sand which was discharged through pipes onto the embankment. Smaller mov-

able dredges were also used which discharged the mud and sand on barges, which were divided into compartments fixed on trucks, and, raised by steam, were placed on an inclined plane that carried the mud to the shore. Many were the problems of engineering which were solved during the construction of the canal.

Another great canal is the one connecting the North Sea and the Baltic, running from the mouth of the Elbe to the gulf of Kiel. Begun in 1887, it was opened in 1895. It is 60 miles long and has a depth of 28 feet and a width of 197 feet, being sufficient to float the largest vessels of the German navy. The working plant consisted of ninety locomotives, 2,473 cars, 133 lighters, 55 steam-engines, and 8,600 men. The Manchester canal, which has made Manchester a seaport, is another great canal enterprise of the century. Thirty-five and a half miles in length, it was opened in 1893, and has a depth of 26 feet and a width of 172 feet.

By the use of shields and dredges the engineers sunk great piers, effected wonders in sanitary engineering, built sewers and jetties, using marvelous machinery, often invented expressly for the purpose. The levees built along the banks of the Mississippi and other rivers have been triumphs of engineering skill, and have save thousands of lives from floods, although the loss of life is still great.

By the skill of the engineer, aided by the architect, tall buildings, rivaling the tower of Babel, rear their heads skyward in the great cities. Buildings of eighteen and twenty stories have ceased to be uncommon. They have been made necessary by the congestion of the great cities, for when from \$150 to \$300 a square foot is paid for land it is necessary to build tall structures in order to pay interest on the ground and the cost of the building. There was a limit beyond which structures of brick and wood might be built, but the use of iron and steel made it possible to build taller structures, two or three times the height of those possible by the

old method. The new method of construction known as the skeleton frame construction, does away with the use of brick and masonry except as a thin shell. Steel beams support the walls of each story and these are framed between columns, permitting thin walls even at the base. The frame work of iron and steel being erected, the masons and carpenters can work on all floors at once and build from top and bottom. Great as have been the improvements in construction, the erection of these buildings calls for the highest engineering skill. The Manhattan Life building in New York, which is twenty-three stories high, weighs 21,000 tons, and there is a pressure of wind estimated at 2,400 tons against its exposed sides, while the total weight, including tenants and furniture, is not far from 31,000 tons. It is necessary to so construct these buildings that the settling from the weight may be accurately estimated. A twenty-story structure will have sixteen elevators that will travel 120,000 miles in a year on 14 miles of wire ropes. From 30 to 50 miles of electrical wire serve to light the building and supply telephone connections for the two or three thousand people who live in the great edifices, while miles upon miles of steam pipes supply the tenants with water. In such buildings one may attend to every want without budging from them, there being post-office, express offices, telegraph offices, and other such conveniences, as well as restaurants and every kind of shop, except, perhaps, livery stables and feed stores.

It is difficult to foretell the future of the construction of such buildings, but it is predicted that within a score of years they may reach thirty and forty stories in height.

Two of the most interesting pieces of engineering of the century are the Eiffel tower and the Ferris wheel. The first, erected in 1889 as the crowning glory of the Paris Exposition and a triumph of French skill, was the idea of Gustav Eiffel. It is 985 feet high, contains 7,300 tons of iron, and cost \$1,000,000. The appearance of the Eiffel tower is

familiar to every one, and it is scarcely possible to convey any adequate idea of the great network of bracings by which each standard of the columns is united to form the loftiest structure in the world.

The engineering feat of the World's Columbian Exposition held at Chicago was the Ferris wheel, the invention of G. W. Ferris, of Pittsburg. It is an enormous "merry-go-round," as the machine at country fairs is called, and the novelty consisted in its magnitude, which called for the highest engineering skill. The great wheel is 250 feet in diameter, and to its periphery were hung thirty-six carriages, each seating forty persons. At each revolution 1,440 people may be raised into the air and from that elevation afforded a splendid prospect, besides an experience of the peculiar sensation, like that of being in a balloon, when the spectator has no perception of his motion, but the objects beneath him appear to have the contrary motion; that is to say, they seem to be sinking when he is rising and vice versa. Begun in March, 1893, the structure was completed in three months at a cost of \$325,000.

Though the steam-engine itself is an invention of the previous century, its application to everything under the sun is an achievement of the Nineteenth Century. The century has also been remarkable for the attempts to get the greatest possible return from the fuel employed with the least possible waste, which followed the general recognition of the principle of the conservation of energy—allusion to which is made in another part of this volume. The energy stored up in coal is converted into heat energy in the process of combustion, and transferred with various losses to steam. This is made by suitable engines to yield up some proportion of its heat energy for conversion into mechanical motion. More energy than the coal supplies it is impossible to obtain as energy of motion, and engineers with a clear realization of this principle have abandoned all schemes for the solution of the perpetual motion problem. The criticism of an engine is

therefore on the returns which it yields for the expenditure of fuel. The inventions of the century have been in the direction of the elimination of friction from the working parts and the employment of methods of construction that give greater power for a small total weight.

As Watt in the 18th Century found the steam engine an imperfect and wasteful arrangement for utilizing only a small portion of the energy of the steam supplied to it and by the invention of his condenser and then by making the engine double acting, made it really a steam engine; so a great step forward was taken by Woolf in 1804, when he developed the compound engine from the crude ideas of Hornblower of 1781. Using steam of fairly high pressure, Woolf expanded it to several times its original volume by cutting off the supply before the end of the stroke in a small cylinder. Its chief advantage is that it limits to a great extent the waste which results from the heating and cooling of the metal by contact with hot and cooler steam. This is the greatest improvement in the steam engine since the time of Watt, but its advantage was not recognized until about the middle of the century, when the discoveries of McNaugh in 1845 and Cowper in 1857, made possible the use of high-pressure steam, and compound expansion became more and more general. In marine engineering, where economy of fuel is of greatest importance, we find triple and even quadruple expansion engines, while the idea is recognized even in the locomotive engines of to-day. The first triple-expansion engine was made by Kirk in 1874.

In other directions the progress of the steam-engine has been in features of mechanical detail and its growing application to nearly every use.

The higher pressure of engines gave rise to a new problem, that of the strength of boiler, cylinders, and accessory connections necessary to withstand the enormous internal pressure of the steam. Improved quality of adaptability of iron and steel have made this

possible, and steam boilers step by step have developed to their present form. Manual labor was used almost exclusively in this work until 1885, the boilers being of wrought iron and riveted by hand. Mild steel boiler plates and machine riveting have to a great extent succeeded these, although, in spite of the fact that hand-riveting is much slower, there are those who contend that it is better.

During the last few years the tubular boiler has been introduced. This is made so that it has no large internal space and can thus be used for heat at high temperatures. It more nearly approaches the theory of Sadi-Carnot, evolved in 1824, which is that the efficiency of any heat engine has its maximum limit fixed by the range of temperature employed with the working substance.

Gas and petroleum engines gained their development during the 19th Century. Street's engine in 1794 was on the principle of internal combustion, to which they owe their origin, and was worked by the combustion of vaporized oil and turpentine. In engines of this type the working substance is heated by its own combustion in the motor cylinder, and because of the greater range of temperature employed they are of higher efficiency. The water jacket introduced by Brown in 1823, to keep the cylinder cool and prevent the rapid degradation due to heat, and the improvements of Lenoir have made them practicable. The Otto gas engine, introduced in 1863, was noisy and mechanically defective, but the Otto silent of 1876 has proved a powerful rival to small steam-engines. Air sufficient for combustion is mixed with gas and a temperature of about 1,600 centigrade, with a pressure of 100 pounds per square inch is obtained, with the expenditure of only twenty-four cubic feet of gas per horse power per hour. This is more economical than any small steam engine. But with larger engines the advantage is with the coal engine, except where natural gas is used. Gas is used in engines just as it is used in grates, stoves, and ranges, always on a

comparatively small scale, where the high price is offset by cleanliness and convenience. A gas engine means only the turning on of a stop-cock and it comes to full speed in a minute or two and hence where small power is used or the large power is intermittent, the gas-engine is most economical.

Petroleum and gasoline engines, which have been successfully applied to horseless carriages, being the favorite method of propulsion for these vehicles—work on the same principle as the gas engine. Instead of the simple admission of gas a sprayed jet of oil is broken up by compressed air playing on it in a nozzle. It is then further heated and fully vaporized by the hot products of the exhaust. The chief objection to the oil engine is its odor.

During the last half century the improvements in steam-power have increased its use nearly fifty-fold. The growth of the use of steam has been from an effective horse power of 1,650,000,000 tons horse power in 1840 to 9,850,000,000 in 1860 to 55,580,000,000 horse power in 1895, according to Mulhall's estimates. Of this total steam power, the United States and Great Britain together possess more than half that of the world, the horse power of the engines of the United States being 16,940,000,000 and that of the British engines 12,970,000,000.

An interesting and important illustration of the economy in the application of steam-power to mechanical contrivances is the steam-hammer. Large forge hammers had been in use actuated by steam before Nasmyth's invention in 1842, but they were worked in an indirect manner, the hammer having been lifted by cams and other expedients, which rendered the apparatus cumbersome, costly, and wasteful of power on account of the indirect way in which the original source of the force—namely, the pressure of steam—had to reach its point of application by giving its blows to the hammer. The range of the fall of the hammer being only eighteen inches, there was a rapid decrease in the energy of blows in pro-

portion to the size of the piece of iron. There was no means of controlling the force of the blow. Nasmyth hit upon the idea, when he received an order for the forging of a shaft for the paddle wheels of a steamer, the shaft to be 3 feet in diameter, a greater size than could be accommodated in any forge hammer in England. In a few minutes he hit upon the idea which has done more to revolutionize the manufacture of iron and steel than any other inventions that could be named, excepting those of Cort and Bessemer. For four years the hammer was not used outside of his shop, although now it is an absolute necessity in every engineering workshop. Owing to its vast range of power, forged iron-work, by its means, can now be executed with a perfection not previously possible. Anything can be done with it, for the strength of the blow is regulated at will and the most minute details of machinery as well as the most gigantic parts are forged with its aid. At Woolwich arsenal there is a steam hammer, built in 1874, the falling portion of which weighs forty tons and which can strike a blow with a force of ninety-one tons.

The main feature of the steam-hammer is the direct manner by which the elastic power of steam is employed to lift up and let fall the mass of iron constituting the hammer, which is attached direct to the end of a piston-rod passing through the bottom of an inverted steam cylinder placed directly over the anvil. The steam is admitted below the piston, which is thus raised to any required height within the limits of the stroke. When the communication with the boiler is shut off and the steam below the piston is allowed to escape, the piston with the mass of iron forming the hammer attached to the piston-rod falls by its own weight. This weight in large steam-hammers amounts to several tons, and the force of the blow will depend jointly upon the weight of the hammer and upon the height from which it is allowed to fall. The steam is admitted and allowed to escape by valves moved by a lever

under the control of the workman. By allowing the hammer to be raised to a greater or less height, and by regulating the escape of the steam from beneath the piston, the operator has it in his power to vary the force of the blow. Men who are accustomed to this tool exhibit their perfect control with such accuracy that a watch may be placed face upwards on the anvil and a moistened wafer on it. The hammer will descend and pick up the wafer without cracking the crystal. Yet it may be a hammer capable of striking a blow of eighty tons.

Water-power has been used for thousands of years as a motive power, but its practical development has come within the last century. The utilization of the vast forces has been greater, especially since water-power has been used as means for the furnishing of electricity, yet at the present time not 5 per cent of the water-power of the world has been rendered available for use, and the great Niagara Falls was not made to work until the last decade of the Nineteenth Century. While the modern turbine is the evolution of ages the principal developments were made during this century. J. Fourneyron in 1827 and St. Blasien in 1837 made great improvements, but in 1855 A. M. Swain, a mechanic who had been employed at the Lowell machine shop, conceived the idea which is the prototype of all the modern turbines; by combining the inward and downward flow wheels, curving the buckets both laterally and vertically he increased the efficiency of the water-wheel by 50 per cent. The gradual improvements since the time of Fourneyron in 1827 have served to furnish turbines of equal power in one-half the space and at one-fifth the cost, an enormous economy of power. The cumbersome mechanism required to use the water of a high fall has been replaced by simple mechanism that makes use of a small fall. Of water as a means of the generation of electricity allusion will be made in the story of miscellaneous electrical achievements.

MODERN WARFARE.

In all the long history of warfare, which is in reality the narrative of the world's progress from earliest time, there is no similar period in which changes so vast and far-reaching have taken place as during the latter half of the Nineteenth Century. There is much less difference between the naval and military methods of the Sixth Century before Christ and those of the Eighteenth Century than there is between the latter and those of our own day. Until the middle of the Nineteenth Century the difference that existed between the ancient war galley and the modern battleship was so slight as to justify the remark common among naval constructors of the day, that "naval architecture, like history, repeats itself." Until the introduction of steam, which was first attempted in 1815, in the double-hulled vessel designed by Robert Fulton, but which did not become practical for naval purposes until 1846, our men-o'-war were but a trifling improvement upon the galleys of Diodorus Siculus. The old galleys were queer looking craft. They were built with keels and frames, and contained a stem and stern post. Near the water line the stem curved outward, gradually taking the form of a ram—a weapon still used in modern warfare. They also had one or more masts, and were propelled by oars, or sails whenever the wind was favorable. Going into action was a gorgeous sight in the Middle Ages. Falcons and broad banners of gaudy hue were flung to the breezes, the sunlight flashing upon the breast-plates of the warriors drawn up in fighting order, and upon a sort of bridge or castle amidships stood a band of richly caparisoned musicians, playing with all their might. At the bow was the battery, consisting of manogels and great cross-bows, with winding-gear that shot showers of huge stones and arrows and red-hot iron and carts of Greek fire at the enemy. Fore and aft small towers were erected, from which archers shot arrows.

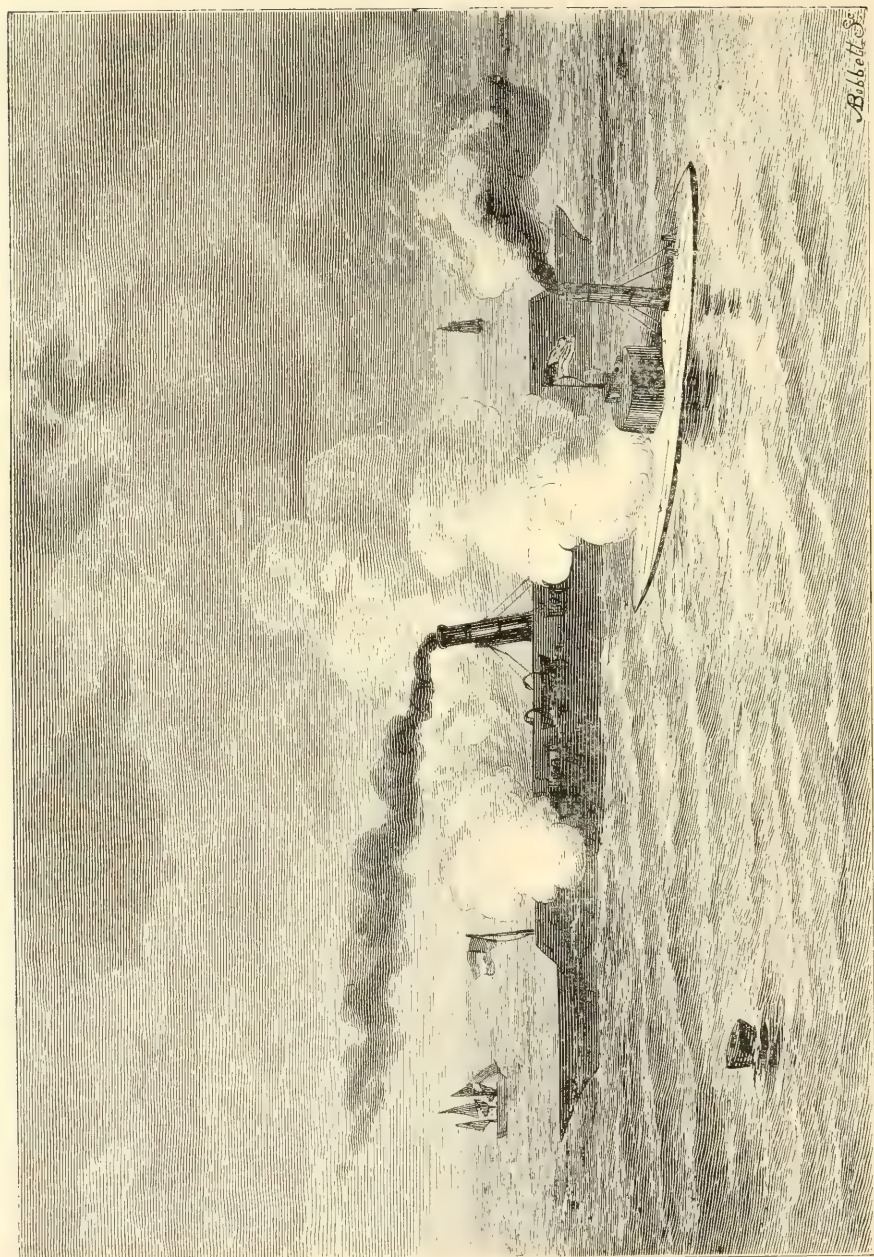
Gunpowder led to the abolition of the towers, and artillery was substituted.

Gradually, with the perfection of the art of sailing, the tactics of warfare were changed. During the early part of the Sixteenth Century the low galley was replaced by the sailing war vessel, and the size of the guns, which were mounted in broadside on these ships, constantly increased. With this increase there came also an increase in the size of the vessels, until, during the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries, the warships became formidable affairs, with three decks and a hundred or so guns. The most deadly of these weapons was the carronade—a light piece first constructed at Carron, in Scotland. This gun was of a large caliber, short length and light weight, and its destructive effect was supposed to exist not so much in its power of penetration as in its ability for splintering. With a reduced charge of powder, and slow initial velocity, the projectile from the carronade created havoc wherever it pierced the side of the enemy. With these developments came a gradual change in naval methods, and at the beginning of the Nineteenth Century warfare was well organized for the first time in history, the crew being divided into little companies, each of which had certain duties. Besides the crew, each frigate had thirty or forty marines, whose duty it was to police the ship and prevent mutiny, which was very common until fifty years ago, owing to the extreme cruelty practiced upon the sailors. These marines were kept carefully apart from the crew, and animosity between them encouraged. At the time of battle they were placed in tops, where it was their duty to pick off the enemy with their muskets. In case they were able to engage the enemy in close quarters, they were expected to board the ship of the combatant, assisted by two or three seamen from each gun, the latter being armed with pistols, cutlasses and boarding pikes. These were known as boarders, and when they were called for, just so many men, and no more, ran from each gun. When the boarders took possession of a ship a fearful carnage followed. When a battle was about to be fought the decks

were sanded to make them less slippery when the blood should begin to flow, and ammunition, small arms, guns and pikes were stacked conveniently near the masts and out of reach of the rivers of gore with which, each bold sailor well knew, the good ship would soon be drenched. The sailors for the most part led hard lives, and were treated little better than their predecessors, the galley slaves. Flogging was common, and many men died under the lash. The crews were generally secured through impressment, and kidnaping was extremely common, as the romances of that period attest.

Such were the ships used and such the methods of warfare generally in vogue when, less than a hundred years ago, Nelson fought and won Trafalgar, the greatest battle in British history, and the most famous of all battles fought between sailing vessels. Although neither so large nor so formidable as the frigates used by Nelson, sailing ships of the same type were used in the memorable naval engagements of our own glorious War of 1812.

The year 1840 saw the sailing ship at the very zenith of its glory. Naval authorities all agreed that further improvement in fighting craft was impossible, and all the great maritime powers of the world were constantly increasing their fleets. In 1841, however, the death-knell of the sail began to sound, when the *Mississippi*, a bark-rigged, steam-propelled frigate was launched and met the approval of the experts. Up to this time steam had been applied only to side-wheel vessels, though Stevens had advocated the screw as early as 1804. Ericsson, however, was the first to make a practical demonstration of its utility in 1837. The screw frigate *Princeton* was launched in 1844, and the advantages of the propeller became too obvious to be disregarded, however much sentiment might cling to the romance and glory that seemed to cluster around the old-time craft. It was not an easy task for the sailors to give up their graceful, shapely frigates for the modern "tea kettle," as the new craft were contemptuously called, and



ATTACK OF THE "MONITOR" ON THE "MERRIMACK"

the fight between steam and sails was a long and bitter one.

In 1857 came the era of iron ships, and the only thing now in common between the wooden vessels of Trafalgar and the modern battle ship of the Spanish-American war is that each is a water-borne structure, armed with guns and propelled in some manner from point to point. The application of armor to ships and its great value was understood by Admiral Mackau, Louis Phillippe's minister of marine, as early as 1840, but was kept by him a profound secret, he intending to employ it against England should occasion arise. Ericsson, about the same date, conceived the general idea of the Monitor. In 1842 Stevens had commenced in the United States a ship plated with four and one-half inches of iron, though the ship was never launched. In the Crimean war both England and France built armored batteries of indifferent seaworthiness. These early European iron-clads were simply line of battle ships cut down, with one tier of guns, and armored on the water line and over the battery. They were no radical departure from the established type. In 1857 Dupuy de Lome completed his famous *La Gloire*, the first sea-going iron-clad. But the first really effective vessel of this kind was the Confederate cruiser *Merrimac*, and her famous conflict with the Monitor has been called the most important naval battle in the world. The *Merrimac* was a cruiser that had burned to the water's edge and sunk. The Confederates raised and rebuilt her, enclosing her vitals with iron plates two inches thick. A bulwark was built, and similarly covered, and a cast-iron ram was attached to the bow about two feet under water. On March 8, 1862, the *Merrimac* steamed out of Norfolk harbor and encountered the wooden ship, *Cumberland*. The huge projectiles from the Union vessel glanced harmlessly into the water, not so much as denting the stout iron sides of the Confederate ship. The *Merrimac* meanwhile sent four shots into the wooden ship, and, moving right under the muzzles of her

thirty guns, struck the *Cumberland* a terrific blow with her iron prow. The *Cumberland* began to sink, while the guns of the *Merrimac* did frightful havoc. More than one hundred of the crew were quickly killed. The water drove the men from the lower guns, but they rushed to the upper and desperately fired their harmless shots at the great mass of iron. At last, with colors flying, the *Cumberland* sank. Having ended one adversary, the *Merrimac* turned upon the Congress, which had been peppering at her, and, although the crew of the latter fought desperately, they were soon forced to surrender. The whole world was electrified by the news that flashed over the wires that night, and the North was in a panic. The next day a great surprise was in store for the *Merrimac*. A strange looking craft that had been derisively called the "Yankee cheese-box," steamed forth and challenged the jubilant Confederate. The monitor had been built after a design of John Ericsson, who for twenty years had been endeavoring to secure its adoption. It was an iron-plated raft, 172 feet over all, 41 feet beam and 11 1-3 feet depth, and with a revolving iron turret containing two guns. The target surface was reduced to a minimum, the hull being less than two feet high and plated with five inches of iron. The turret was nine feet high, and covered with eight inches of iron. It was a floating fortress.

It seemed at the time impracticable, but in desperation the United States was willing to try the experiment. Naval experts believed that the first shot fired by her own guns would send her to the bottom. The *Merrimac* had ten guns to the Monitor's two, and her crew was six times as numerous, so the people who watched the battle from the shore expected the Confederate cruiser to sink the audacious little craft with one volley from her big guns. The advantage was with the Monitor, however, throughout the entire fight, for the *Merrimac* could not easily reach her enemy through the narrow port holes, but the Monitor with her revol-

ing turret could fire in any direction. The Monitor's size prevented her from being struck by many balls, and most of those which did hit her turret glanced harmlessly into the water. Though the Merrimac fired twice as many shots, those of the Monitor did the greatest execution. When the Merrimac tried to ram the Monitor she did no damage to the enemy, but opened her own bow and made an alarming leak. Not until the Merrimac's shots were directed against the Monitor's pilot house did the latter ship withdraw, and the Merrimac, leaking badly, and supposing the fight was over, also withdrew. Although the fight was undecided, the purpose of the Merrimac was defeated. The most important effect of the battle, aside from its being a virtual victory for the Union, was the establishment of the value of the iron-clad. Ericsson's despised plan was received with enthusiasm, and a dozen monitors were quickly constructed, which were of great assistance to the Federal forces. A revolution instantly took place, not only in the navy of the United States, but in those of all the foreign powers. The building of iron-clads became imperative and the great wooden men-o'-war, once the boast and pride of maritime nations, were now consigned to the past, along with the galley and the sailing vessel.

As soon as the iron-clad became an assured success, the nations began to look for a more formidable weapon than the ordinary cannon. This has been found in the torpedo, the most terrible engine of destruction that the mind of man has conceived for the purpose of warfare. From the floating kegs loaded with charges of gunpowder, which Captain David Bushnell set adrift in New York harbor to the consternation of the British during the Revolution, the torpedo has advanced by rapid stages to the dignity of a machine capable of demolishing in an instant the largest and most powerful battle ship afloat. The torpedo properly dates back to 1846, when Professor Schoenbein, of Basel, Switzerland, produced the powerful explosive known as

nitric acid. For a long time, however, this terrible explosive was impractical for military purposes, owing to the peril attendant on its transportation, but at last F. A. Abel devised a process for its manufacture in compressed solid cylinders, which can be stored and transmitted with safety, and which explode with great power when ignited under the confinement of a detonating powder. The torpedoes of modern warfare are of two kinds: They are either contrivances propelled through the water so as to strike the enemy's vessels, or are more or less stationary, submerged mines, so arranged as to explode when a ship passes over them. During the last two years of the Civil War, the torpedo service of both forces was responsible for tremendous destruction. Seven United States iron-clads, thirteen wooden war vessels, and several army transports were destroyed by torpedoes, and eight more vessels were badly injured. Four of the Confederate vessels were destroyed by their own mines. In the Russo-Turkish war of 1877-1878, the torpedo played a great part. Through their agency the armored fleet on the Danube was held in check without the aid of a single Russian war ship. At Batoum a steamer was blown up and sunk by a Whitehead torpedo, which is the first recorded triumph of that now celebrated weapon. In the Chilian revolution of 1891, the battleship Blanco Encalada was sunk with a crew of 150 by a Whitehead torpedo. The right to use this torpedo has been purchased by the leading maritime nations of the world. The torpedo consists of a cigar-shaped case of phosphor bronze. The dimensions vary in different countries, but the average length is 14 feet and the average diameter 14 inches. The destructive effect is accomplished entirely by a head, wherein lies all the way from sixty to seventy to 250 pounds of gun cotton. There are many types of the offensive torpedo similar to the Whitehead, but the complexity of their construction, and the large percentage of failures in their attempted runs, as conspicuously demonstrated in our late

Spanish-American war, do not justify their being considered so much a destructive as a demoralizing power.

During the progress of hostilities between the United States and Spain, the whole naval world looked forward with breathless anxiety to see a practical test of the terror-inspiring torpedo boats. But opportunity for a demonstration of their destructiveness did not come. The Spanish craft that sped out on their death-dealing missions at the battles of Manila and Santiago were not alert enough to escape the vigilance of the expert gunners, who hammered them with shot and shell before they approached near enough to discharge their doom-sealing weapons. The torpedo boat has been likened to the race horse of the steamer world, built for short dashes at high speed. The first qualification is that it shall be built as small and light as possible, and that it shall be painted a color that will blend with sea and sky at night. Five-sevenths of the boat is taken up by machinery and coal, and in the other two-sevenths, the extreme ends, the boat's crew are huddled like sheep in a pen—officers forward, men aft. The hardships that are undergone by the crew of a torpedo boat during an engagement are inconceivable to anyone not in the service. The heat from the engines is terrific, and when the weary sailor is overcome by the fatigue and excitement of the battle, there is no place for him to lay his head except between two boilers or torpedo tubes.

The defensive torpedo, however, has become the essential auxiliary of the land gun for the defense of harbors. The modern submarine mine has reached a stage of perfection that guarantees the safety of almost any city that is under its protection, notwithstanding the fact that Admiral Dewey sailed into Manila Bay over a veritable nest of deadly torpedoes. The mines are usually arranged to be fired at will or automatically at touch of the vessel. The blowing up of the United States battle ship *Maine* in Havana harbor on the night of February 15, 1898, and the killing of 268 brave American sailors,

is the most notable example of the destructiveness of the submarine mine.

The use of solid shot in warfare has been practically given up. The projectile of to-day is a conical shell of steel, hollow, and sometimes loaded with powder, so as to explode on striking, or by a time fuse. It is wonderfully different from the shell of twenty-five years ago. In those days one could watch the shell as it sailed through the air in a graceful curve, and there was time, under favorable circumstances, to get out of the way before it bursted. But the new style of shell moves at the rate of a mile a second, and when it strikes a metal target, its energy being transformed instantaneously into heat, it becomes red hot, and a flame bursts forth from the point struck. The projectile of to-day moves almost in a straight line, and its impact at a distance of a mile seems almost simultaneous with the discharge of the gun. When such a shell passes near a man, it will tear his clothes off, merely from the windage, and if it comes too near him, though not hitting him, it will kill him. The concussions from their own shots destroyed the aural membranes of a number of gunners in our late war, who had not properly protected their ears against such danger.

The first real and complete test of the ordnance developed by modern naval science since the Rebellion was given during the war between the United States and Spain. Each of the contending nations had navies that included some of the best battle ships in the world, and each was splendidly equipped with all the latest improvements in ammunition and armament. The only fault with the test is that the Americans were so much superior to the Spanish in the skill with which they manœuvred their ships and handled their weapons of destruction, that it cannot after all be taken as a wholly fair test. One thing sufficiently established, however, was the effectiveness of the modern war vessel and its death-dealing power.

Improvement in modern warfare is not confined solely to naval methods and equipment. There has been a vast

change in army ordnance within the past century. Napoleon, greatest of modern warriors, would be no more astonished than Admiral Nelson were he to return to earth and see with what strides the science of war has advanced during his absence. He would find that his heavy columns could not be launched in all their imposing pageantry; and that Murat, his daring cavalry leader, could not ride over an army with his horsemen. The grand and picturesque bayonet charge is a thing of the past. We have in its place the thin skirmish lines, seeking to crush the enemy with their fire alone, and it is probable that cavalry will never again charge on the battlefield. The simple artillery pieces that were used at the battle of Waterloo were mere toys as compared to the rapid fire machine guns of the present day. The modern machine gun is the outcome of a series of evolutions in armament. The "mitrailleuse" came first, and soon showed its capabilities. Then the Hotchkiss showed the possibility of using heavier and larger projectiles. The modern rapid-fire gun was merely a product evolved from the "mitrailleuse" and the Hotchkiss, and the rapid-fire guns differ from each other in detail rather than in results. All carry heavy projectiles and discharge such shot with a rapidity that depends largely upon the caliber of the barrels, the larger the caliber and the longer the barrels, the slower the discharge. In this country the multi-barrel has been the most familiar type, owing to the use of the Gatling gun in the army. Besides the Gatling, there are the Gardner, the Maxim-Nordenfeldt, the Accles and the Robinson, among the leading multi-barrels, while the best known single-barrels are the Maxim and the Skode. Tests with the Maxim gun have scored records of 775 shots to the minute.

The practical test to which "smokeless powder" was put in the Spanish-American war demonstrated so obvious a superiority for it over the best of the old style composition, that it will doubtless hereafter serve all branches of military service, including vessels of

war. The party using the ordinary powder could not discern the attacking foe, using the new explosive, with any certainty, till it had advanced within 200 yards of the defending line. With rifles that kill at two miles, as an Austrian improved rifle is said to have done recently, and smokeless powder in cartridges for "magazine" or rapid-fire rifles, with Gatling machine guns, and revolving cannon, the land forces are certainly as well equipped for war as are the marines.

Gun cotton, which made the torpedo effective, was first used for artillery purposes by the Austrian army, and is now an indispensable agent in the conduct of military and naval operations among all nations. In 1847 another and more terrible explosive than gun cotton was discovered by Sombbrero. This was nitro-glycerine, and was produced by subjecting common glycerine to a treatment of concentrated sulphuric and nitric acid. The clear, oily, colorless, sweetish liquid thus obtained would burn without detonation, but when an infinitesimal quantity was exposed to the open air a jar or shock was sufficient to produce an explosion of such terrific force as to blow to atoms everything in the vicinity. In the same year Alfred Nobel, a Swedish resident of Hamburg, became greatly interested in the perilous discovery, and, assisted by his brother, began its manufacture on a large scale. Although the life of the brother was sacrificed in one of the earliest experiments, Nobel persevered until he had devised a process whereby nitro-glycerine could be manufactured with comparative safety. In 1863 he introduced the practice of soaking common gunpowder in it for blasting, and in 1867 he conceived the idea of mixing it with some solid, inert substance, such as silicious ashes or infusorial earth. The product resulting from the latter process was called dynamite, now regarded to be the safest of all explosives, as neither electricity, light nor ordinary shocks causes it to explode.

Of the many explosive bodies that have been discovered during the Nineteenth

Century, the only one that can be considered a rival of gunpowder is the substance known as cordite. This is a smokeless powder, and consists of a mixture of gun cotton, nitro-glycerine and vaseline. In the manufacture of old-fashioned gunpowder many changes have taken place within the past forty years, both in process and general composition. By increasing the density of the grains, thus closing more tightly the pores through which ignition penetrates their mass, the energy of gunpowder has been increased and the velocity of the projectile propelled thereby is proportionately increased. Another improvement of great advantage consists of molding the grains into definite geometrical forms. Instead of the more or less coarsely pulverized substance of a half century ago the gunpowder of to-day is made into prismatic, lenticular, pellet and hexagonal forms. One of the most popular varieties of these forms is the hexagonal prism. It was chosen for the same reason that the honey bee chooses to build hexagon cells in its comb—to economize space. In building cartridges for big guns out of this powder the pieces fit snugly together, every possible ounce of force being put into the prism by compression. There is accordingly no loss of space in the load chamber of the gun. The concentration of power by means of the hydraulic press used in the manufacture of these prisms is so great that solid prisms of this powder loaded into a gun would burst it. To obviate this each prism is perforated with a number of small holes running parallel to its axis, thereby securing expansion equally in all directions and insuring the combustion of all the explosive.

One of the most marvelous institutions of modern warfare is the transmitting of intelligence by means of sunlight signals or heliographing. The system of the heliograph is extremely simple. It employs a mirror much more carefully prepared, but not much bigger than the bit of looking-glass wherewith the mischievous schoolboy throws flashes of sunlight into other

people's faces, and it works on the same general principle. A great deal has been done in late years to adapt the telephone and telegraph to troops in the field, but time and opportunity for constructing even a temporary line across a stretch of hostile country or regions exposed to the fire of the enemy is often lacking. It was formerly customary to resort to the flag by day and the torch by night, a certain signal code being brought into requisition. But the torch and flag were unavailable for greater distances than ten to fifteen miles, and in rainy weather or dark weather their use is limited to five miles or less. Sometimes two mirrors are necessary in order to work a heliograph. This is called the duplex system. When the sun is behind the signaller, a second mirror is placed at such an angle that the reflections are thrown on the first, or working mirror. At night the instrument is rendered equally effective by adjusting the mirrors so that they reflect the light produced by a powerful electric arc. The heliograph first demonstrated its efficiency and utility for field intercommunication in the Indian wars of the Western frontier, beginning in 1886. Three years later Major W. J. Volkmann, U. S. A., demonstrated in Arizona and New Mexico the possibility of carrying on communication by heliograph over a range of 200 miles. He was assisted by 33 officers and 129 operators, and 3,787 messages were exchanged, comprising 92,406 words. The network of communication begun by General Miles in 1886 and continued by Lieutenant W. A. Glassford, was perfected in 1889 at ranges of 85, 88, 95 and 125 miles, over a country inconceivably rugged and broken, the stronghold of the Apache and other hostile Indian tribes.

The use of the balloon in warfare is another distinctly Nineteenth Century institution, its first recorded application to such purpose taking place during the Civil War. In 1862 General McClellan organized a balloon corps, with Thaddeus S. C. Lowe at its head. The innovation soon became a compo-

nent part of the Army of the Potomac, as it did good service in disclosing the military operations of the Confederates. Now all the leading military nations of the world have their balloon corps, specially trained and equipped for reconnoitering purposes. At the battle of Santiago on July 1, 1898, the movements of the enemy were observed from a balloon by Sergeant Thomas Carroll Boone. A telegraph wire connected the basket of the balloon with the ground, and observations, transmitted in that manner to the officers below.

The bicycle has also been brought into requisition as a piece of army equipment in recent years, and a number of the leading military powers of the world have fully equipped bicycle corps attached to their regular armies.

The practical abolishment of privateering constitutes one of the most wholesome and radical changes that has taken place in modern warfare during the Nineteenth Century. This marked a long step in progress, for as a matter of course privateering is but a legalized form of piracy. Although privateering in some form or other goes back to ancient times, the "sea beggars" have flourished especially as a recognized institution of civilized nations from the middle of the Sixteenth Century to the close of the Rebellion. The privateer was an armed vessel belonging to a private owner, the subject of a belligerent power, and bearing a commission from that power to "sink, burn or destroy" the commerce of an enemy. With its abolishment by the Treaty of Paris, in 1856, the last vestige of poetry and romance has departed from modern warfare. The day of smart maneuvers under sail, of yard-arm to yard-arm conflicts, of the carronade, swivel and boarding pike, is now a thing forgotten. The dare-devil style of climbing over a stranger's bulwarks, clearing his decks with naked cutlass and spitting pistols, and then asking his nationality and destination, is also forgotten, although it is but comparatively few years since such practices were extremely common. The Eighteenth Cen-

tury and the early years of the present were halcyon times for the privateer. The New York newspapers of the Colonial period abound in advertisements inviting "gentlemen and others" to enlist with this or that vessel fitting out under the commission of "His Majesty." England encouraged privateering by ordering that prizes taken should be divided between the owner and the captors, the rights of the crown being especially excluded in numerous prize acts. The United States, as a nation, also greatly encouraged privateering up to and during the War of 1812. Not less than 1,367 public and private armed vessels were commissioned by the colonies to prey upon British commerce during the Revolution. In spite of its prevalence and immeasurable advantage to the United States during the War of 1812, privateering soon fell into disfavor, as shown by the fact that Congress in 1818 passed a law forbidding the enlistment in this country of men for foreign privateering. Great Britain was more than fifty years behind us in passing such a law. In 1824 the United States vainly urged Great Britain to assist us in the abolition of legalized sea robbery. Thirty years later Lord Clarendon advised that it be abolished by international agreement, but James Buchanan, then United States minister to England, was instructed to reply that his country could not assent to the proposal unless all the naval powers should declare that war should never be waged upon private property on the high seas. In April, 1856, at the termination of the Crimean War, Great Britain, France, Austria, Russia and Turkey held a congress at Paris, at which it was decided to abolish privateering under the agreement known as the Declaration of Paris. This notable congress was brought about by Great Britain because it was feared that Russia would issue letters of marque to the fleets of the United States merchant ships, commissioning them to prey upon English and French commerce. All the important European powers save Spain signed this treaty, and all the American powers ex-

cept the United States and Mexico. This country, through William L. Marcy, offered to sign the agreement if the clause as to privateering should be amended by the declaration that the private property of subjects or citizens should be exempt from seizure on the high seas by the public armed vessels of other belligerents. The great powers refused assent to the proposed amendment, and the United States did not become a party to the treaty. When the Civil War broke out in 1861 Mr. Seward, then Secretary of State, offered to sign the treaty of 1856 without insisting upon the amendment, but Great Britain and France replied that the signature could not be accepted if it was to be coupled with the condition that the provisions of this treaty were to be made applicable to the use of privateers by the Southern Confederacy. As that was the wish of the administration Mr. Seward did not sign the treaty. The story of Confederate privateering, and especially the damage done to commerce by Confederate cruisers, was still fresh in the memory of the world when the American-Spanish war broke out. The fact that neither of the contending nations had signed the Declaration of Paris, and were therefore at perfect liberty to issue letters of marque and reprisal to privateers, was looked upon with grave foreboding by all the great maritime powers of the world. Although Spain threatened at the outbreak of hostilities to resort to such method of warfare, it was never carried into execution. Civilized opinion was too strong against such barbarous and illicit practice to warrant its being carried on with any success, and the opportunity for disposing of prizes would have been greatly restricted by the almost undoubted refusal of neutral nations to permit such spoils of war to be sold in their ports. Trade relations have become so much more important than they were in the days of active privateering that the day has long gone past when the world would stand by and see two belligerent nations preying upon each other's commerce to the annoyance

and inconvenience of all their neighbors.

Up to the Nineteenth Century the most inhuman method of punishment for breaches of discipline were in vogue both in the army and the navy. The military punishments in the English army were of infamous severity. Instances were numerous where a thousand lashes were given to offenders, while riding the wooden horse, being strung up by the thumbs and other equally cruel punishments were very common. All these brutal chastisements have been done away with, and only in very rare cases is any physical punishment administered to the modern soldier or sailor. In the year 1850 flogging was abolished by act of Congress in the navy of the United States. Up to that time the captain of any of our national vessels had the authority, at his discretion, to order any man in his command to be stripped and lashed with the cat-o-nine-tails. This instrument of torture, once so familiar to all sea-faring men, is now only known to them by tradition. Old officers thought the navy itself as good as abolished with the cat-o-nine-tails. But subsequent events proved how utterly mistaken they were. The record made by the naval forces under Farragut in the Civil War and under Dewey at Manila are proof positive that the fighting qualities of the American Jack Tar have not been spoiled in the least by the sparing of the cruel and barbarous weapon.

Since the introduction of more humane methods of treatment, statistics show that both the sailors and the soldiers of the world are gradually growing better, and that there is a gradual decrease in the number of court-martials. The last report of the Judge Advocate of the United States Army shows a marked decrease in the number of court-martial trials since 1893. With the improvement of the morale of the army it is interesting to note that the desertions have fallen off wonderfully. In 1894 there were 518 deserters; in 1895 the number fell to 255; in 1897 it dropped to 244; and in

1898, when there was real fighting to be done, it fell to 176—and that out of an army that was nearly twice as large as it had been in 1894.

However paradoxical it may appear, it is nevertheless a fact that the improved destructiveness of weapons of war has made a less destruction. The modern conception of war with the more advanced nations includes the factor of fighting with the least possible suffering, and to meet the demands of the accepted standard of humanity has been the purpose of the newer engines of destruction. It was with this humane intent that the Mauser bullet was invented. The old-fashioned bullet usually whirled round and round, tearing the tissues, arteries, muscles and flesh, and on coming in contact with a bone shattered it to splinters. The wound of exit left a hole large enough to insert a man's fist. Whenever a man was hit in the arm or leg with one of these bullets it was almost always necessary to perform amputation, if the victim did not die beforehand from hemorrhage. With the Mauser bullet all this is different. Experience in the Cuban war has demonstrated that only very infrequently does a wound caused by a Mauser bullet result in a hemorrhage which might be fatal. Men struck by the Mauser bullets have been known to continue fighting to the end of the battle after receiving what is generally supposed to be a mortal wound. In almost every case this bullet passes clear through the victim's body, and the wound of exit is no larger than that of entrance, and there is no splintering of bone or tearing up of tissues.

All the changes that might be supposed to make war more cruel and bloody have really operated in the interest of humanity. The old-fashioned arms, because they were fired at close quarters, killed and wounded sixty per cent of the combatants. The improved arms of modern warfare, in the bloodiest battle noted in history, killed and wounded but little more than 25 per cent. The "laws of war" show a magnanimous consideration for the enemy and a humane regard for the weak and

defenseless. According to the code at present formulated by civilized nations these laws forbid the use of poison against the enemy; murder by treachery, as for example, assuming the uniform or flag of the foe; the murder of those who have surrendered; the use of such weapons as will cause unnecessary pain to an enemy; the abuse of a flag of truce; all unnecessary destruction of property, whether public or private; that only fortified places shall be besieged; that women and children and non-combatants be allowed to depart before the bombardment of a city begins; that plundering by private soldiers or officers shall be considered inadmissible; that prisoners shall be treated with common humanity; that personal and family honor and the religious convictions of an invaded people must be respected by the invaders and all pillage by regular troops or their followers be strictly forbidden.

Considering the marvelous strides which modern warfare has made in the Century, it may appear to some that the universal brotherhood of man is but an empty dream, and that the day is yet far distant when the nations of the earth shall beat their swords into plowshares, and their spears into pruning-hooks. Paradoxical as it looks, we are rapidly tending toward a practical millennium. On account of the enormous expense necessary to conduct campaigns in these advanced stages of equipment, wars are much shorter in duration and more infrequent of occurrence than they have ever been in the history of the world. In fact war has come to be regarded as such a terrible ordeal that it is only resorted to after every available effort has been expended to settle the dispute by arbitration. This method has been gradually growing in favor among all nations, and as a result more than eighty international disputes have been settled by arbitration during the Nineteenth Century. The people of the world have risen up in revolt against the tyranny of needless conflicts, and war is now compelled to give a strict account of itself and to answer a thoughtful and stern challenge for its reason for being.

TRANSPORTATION.

Many are the methods of transportation which have been in use throughout the centuries. At the beginning of the last century land journeys were made by stage coach and the sedan chair; the pack-horse, clumsy wagons, and the canal boat were generally used for the transportation of merchandise, while people in the main, performed their long journeys by stage coach or the carrier's cart.

In the year 1804 Obadiah Elliot, a coachmaker, patented a plan for hanging vehicles upon elliptical springs, thus dispensing with the heavy iron and wood beds that had been invariably used in four wheel carriages up to that time.

In 1829 the first public omnibus appeared in London. Victorias became popular in 1869. The buggy is an American invention of the first part of the last century. It gained much admiration from English coachmakers, who were surprised at the extreme lightness, ease and durability with which it could travel over rough roads.

The coaches, landaus, broughams, spiders, runabouts, game carts and dog-carts of to-day show to what extent the carriage manufacturer has developed his art. Wagons have undergone as many improvements as carriages during the last century. There are appropriate wagons for every use in city or country. The use of steam and machinery in their manufacture has cheapened the price of vehicles.

In 1769, Nicolas Joseph Cugnot, a French engineer, had invented a self-propelling steam carriage. A later engineer, Oliver Evans, of Philadelphia, in 1804 built a steam dredge which ran on wheels one and a half miles through the streets. On Christmas Eve, 1801, according to some authorities, Richard Trevithick made the first trial of his locomotive at Cambourne, carrying the first passengers to travel by steam. There is confusion, however, as to the dates of the trial trips of Trevithick's engine, although it was certainly exhibited both in London and Wales prior

to 1809, attracting much attention on the Merthyr Tydvil line. To quote a newspaper of the time, it "traveled with ease at the rate of five miles an hour," and conveyed "along the tramroad ten tons long weight of bar iron from Penydarren iron works to the place where it joins the Glarmorganshire canal, upwards of nine miles distant; and it is necessary to observe that the weight of the load was soon increased by about seventy persons riding on the trams, who, drawn thither by curiosity, were eager to ride." Trevithick's locomotive was but little more than a model. It was full of imperfections and, being unable to make steam, could not travel fast or draw a heavy load. It remained for the Stephensons, father and son, to produce the modern locomotive. George Stephenson's first locomotive was made in 1814, and from that year the invention of the locomotives is generally said to date.

The first public steam railway in the world was formally opened in England, September 27, 1825. The Stockton and Darlington was thirty-eight miles in length. The line was laid with both malleable and cast iron rails, and cost 250,000 pounds. Its opening was attended with great curiosity and excitement. There was to be a competition between various kind of motive power; horses, stationary engines and a locomotive being tried. The train consisted of six loaded wagons, a passenger carriage, twenty-one trucks fitted with seats and six wagons filled with coal. George Stephenson drove the locomotive. "The signal being given," says a writer of the time, "the engine started off with this immense train of carriages, and such was its velocity that in some parts the speed was frequently twelve miles an hour, and the number of passengers was counted to be 450, which, together with the coals, merchandise and carriages, would amount to near ninety tons. The engine, with its load, arrived at Darlington, travelling the last eight and three-quarter miles in sixty-five minutes. The six wagons loaded with coals, intended for Darlington, were then left behind, and ob-

taining a fresh supply of water, and arranging the procession to accommodate a band of music, and numerous passengers from Darlington, the engine set off again and arrived at Stockton in three hours and seven minutes, including stoppages, the distance being nearly twelve miles."

In 1829 the Stephensons invented the steam blast, which, continually feeding the flame with a fresh supply of oxygen, enabled the "Rocket," their prize engine, to make steam enough to draw ten passenger cars, at the rate of ten miles an hour.

In 1830 the Liverpool and Manchester Railway was opened, despite great opposition by the people.

The writers of the day denounced the railway in magazines and newspapers, and it was even opposed in Parliament. But George Stephenson was strong enough to withstand all attacks. It was while he was undergoing examination from a Parliamentary committee that the familiar anecdote about the relative strength of the locomotive and the cow originated.

"But suppose, now, Mr. Stephenson, one of these engines, going along a railroad at the rate of nine or ten miles an hour, should encounter a cow; would not that be bad, think you?"

"Yes," replied the Scotch engineer, with a smile, "varra bad—for the coo."

Even after the building of the railway the directors hesitated about employing steam locomotives; but after the triumph of the "Rocket," in 1829, the power to be used for tractive purposes was finally settled, and the Liverpool and Manchester Railway became a success beyond the wildest dreams of its promoters. Many other lines were built, and the British people soon became accustomed to railway traveling. Very odd were the clumsy cars of those times. Most of them were open at the sides and protected only by rude awnings. Some of them contained benches, but in others it was necessary to sit on the floor. The first-class and mail train was entirely covered in, and was tolerably well seated, but the most comfortable way of traveling was in one's own

family coach, hoisted on a truck attached to the rear end of a train. This method of journeying became very fashionable with aristocratic folk.

The Stephenson locomotives, having but little side play to their wheels, were unable to go around sharp curves. Lines were, accordingly, made as straight as possible, and vast sums of money were spent in making easy grades. Deep cuts, costly tunnels and bridges were necessary, and all lines in England were made with easy grades and slight curves.

Belgium is credited with being the first country on the European Continent to have a railroad. In conformity with a government decree, issued in July, 1834, Pierre Simin prepared plans for railway communication throughout the kingdom, and the Brussels and Mechlin Railway was opened for traffic on May 6, 1837. Railroads for general traffic were introduced in France in 1839, nearly ten years after the opening of the Manchester and Liverpool line.

While the period between 1825 and 1830 was pregnant with railway movements, it can scarcely be said that any railway was successfully operated in the Americas before 1830, when the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad opened its first section of fifteen miles from Baltimore to Ellicotts Mills. The first genuine locomotive in use in the United States was the "Stourbridge Lion," which made its trial trip several months before the opening of the Baltimore and Ohio road, on a railway connecting the coal mines of northeastern Pennsylvania with the Delaware and Hudson Canal. From 1830 to 1835 many lines were projected, and at the end of 1835 there were over a thousand miles of railway in use in the United States. In 1831 the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad offered a premium of \$4,000 "for the most approved engine which shall be delivered for trial upon the road on or before the first of June, 1831; and \$3,500 for the engine which shall be adjudged the next best." The first prize was won by the "York," built at York, Pennsylvania, after plans

drawn by Pheneas Davis, a watch and clock maker.

The celebrated locomotive "John Bull" was built by George and Robert Stephenson and Company, and was imported from England in 1831.

Many locomotives were imported from England, but owing to the different conditions in the United States, the American locomotive soon acquired a distinct individuality. To-day American locomotives are acknowledged superior to all others, and are exported to every country which the railway has penetrated.

Necessity was the mother of invention; the money which Great Britain lavished on deep cuts and expensive tunnels was not forthcoming in the young republic, so the engineers of the United States put their wits to work and devised flexible locomotives which will round any curve, and ascend steep grades without difficulty. The chief and most important of these inventions is the swivel truck, which, placed under the front of the car, enables the driver to make a sharp turn with perfect safety. By means of the equalizing lever, another great invention, the weight of the engine is always borne by three out of four or more driving wheels. This prevents the locomotive from running off the rails, even when the track is a rough one, and the road-bed is uncompleted. Of late years swiveling trucks have been applied to cars as well as to engines, so that the modern train of a score of cars follows the locomotive with exactness and safety, and hugs the side of a mountain, where the track is laid actually on a shelf hewn in the rock, with utter disregard of the law of centrifugal force. During a period of less than seventy years, our railways have grown from small beginnings to rank among the wonders of the world, and the improvement in their equipment has kept pace with their rapid growth.

Peter Cooper's locomotive, built in 1830, had great difficulty in exceeding the speed of a good horse; the locomotive of to-day, which pulls the limited express, makes sixty miles an

hour as a regular thing, and can increase it to seventy upon occasion.

The old iron track with its dangerous flat rail has given place to Bessemer rails, which nothing but time or fire can loosen from their place. The antiquated method of signaling by the frantic waving of flags has been superseded by electricity, which displays the signals high in the air. Double and quadruple tracks, so that no two trains on crowded roads run in opposite directions, do away with all danger of collision.

The railway mileage of the United States in 1830 was less than sixty miles, including tracks for all purposes; to-day it amounts to considerably more than 200,000 miles, about two-fifths the total mileage of the world.

The cost of building the railroads of this country has been enormous, and they represent a vast sum of money.

The remainder of the railways of the world are distributed through almost every corner of the globe; the enterprising Anglo-Saxon has introduced his chariot of fire wherever he himself has penetrated. It is quite in opposition to the fitness of things to fancy the journey to Jericho as made by railway, but not only does the modern tourist go from Jerusalem to that ancient city of the Bible, in a steam-car, but there is also a railway which runs from Joppa to Jerusalem. This last, the Jaffa-Jerusalem Railway, was opened August 27, 1892, when the first train ran from the ancient seaport to the City of David. This road is fifty-three miles long. The Hindoo railway system, as might be expected under British rule, is the most complete and best stocked of all the Asiatic railway systems. Japan comes in a good second, with American locomotives, Bessemer rails and engineers who have learned their trade in the United States.

The street railway company is a recent institution and has been in general use for comparatively only a few years. The first application of the railway track to short-distance passenger traffic was not made until 1831, when John Stephenson tried the experiment

in New York. The track was of flat bars, spiked to timbers laid on stone, and the car, one only, resembled an omnibus, built in three sections, with thirty seats inside, and thirty on the roof, making sixty altogether. Horse-power propelled it, and its route was from Prince Street to the Harlem River, along the Bowery and Fourth Avenue. In 1852, the Second, Third, Sixth and Eighth Avenue lines in New York were begun. Boston had no street-cars until 1856, nor Philadelphia until a year later, in 1857. Horse-cars were introduced into Paris in 1858, but it was not until 1870 that a tramway was permitted in London, and even now they are not allowed in the center of the city. To-day there are street-cars in operation in every country in Europe, and also in Africa, Asia, in Japan, India and Ceylon, Australia, New Zealand, and in various parts of South America, as well as Manila and in Honolulu.

It was not until 1873 that cable-cars were introduced. Prior to that date all street-cars were drawn by horses. The first cable-car was used in San Francisco in 1873. The experiment was abundantly ridiculed.

The new departure proved a triumphant success, and street-railways became possible on the steep hills which had been insurmountable to horse-cars—another instance of the manner in which American inventors always rise to the emergency.

The first city to follow suit was Chicago, in 1881, and in 1883 Philadelphia ran her first cable-cars on Market Street. The franchise in both cities belonged to the same company, and it has made its owners multi-millionaires. New York fought their introduction fiercely, and did not yield until 1886, while there were no cables in Baltimore until 1893. London built its first cable road in 1884, and New Zealand preceded the mother-country by a year, in the uses of the new means of locomotion.

The trolley-car is a yet more recent innovation. As early as 1835, Thomas Davenport, of Brandon, Vermont, con-

structed an electric car, operated on a circular track, but he made no more than the model. In 1851 an electric locomotive, which attained a speed of 19 miles an hour, was tested on the Baltimore and Washington Railway, but the first electric railway to prove a financial success was not built until 1881, when Siemens and Halske operated one in Germany. There was intense prejudice against the electric railway in the United States on account of the danger from live wires, a prejudice fully justified by the number of casualties which occurred during the first years of their use; but experience taught the safe management of the deadly fluid, and the trolley-car is now among the institutions in every town in the country. Elevated and underground railways are successfully operated in various European and American cities, whenever the problem of rapid transit through crowded streets renders surface tramways dangerous, not to say deadly, and electricity is becoming more and more general as their motive power.

Experiments have proved that a greater rate of speed is possible to both locomotives and steamships, by the use of electricity, than by that of steam, and that it is possible to obtain more electric power than steam power from the same amount of coal, while the waterfalls have been utilized so that in all probability electricity will be the motive power of the future. Still there is talk of a coming rival. Compressed air is another propeller successfully used for locomotives and engines. It is kept both in storage batteries and in tanks, and is much liked not only for its results as to speed, but on the grounds of economy, cleanliness and safety.

It is said that the progenitor of the modern bicycle existed nearly two hundred years ago, for there is a figure of a two-wheeled hobby-horse on a stained-glass window in Stoke-Pogis Church, Bucks County, England, which window is over 200 years old. Back in the beginning of the eighteenth century, a strange device, called a hobby-horse, was introduced among novelties

in vehicles. It was constructed with two wheels, joined tandem, by a frame of wood. The saddle for the rider was on this midway between the wheels. He, the rider, propelled the machine by means of long strides taken on the ground. Its motion was restricted to a straight line, and locomotion therewith was tiresome, and chiefly valuable for purposes of exercise.

Still the earliest velocipede worthy of the name was a clumsy contrivance, which was patented in 1816, in France, by one Baron von Drais, under the name of the pedestrian curricule. Two years later, an improved form of the "Draisienne" was introduced into England, but being impractical and clumsy, it met with ridicule rather than success. When it crossed the Atlantic in 1819, it met with more success in the United States, and was quite the fashion for a while, although the fancy for it soon died out. The next step in the evolution of the bicycle was not made until 1846, when a Scotchman named Dalzell invented a wooden safety bicycle, which, though a great improvement upon anything which had preceded it, was not sufficiently practical to be adopted to any extent. Velocipedes and tricycles of various patterns were patented in the United States, and were popular, chiefly for children and cripples. In 1869 M. Michaux, of Paris, invented a bicycle in which the front, or driving wheel was very much larger than the rear wheel. Just about this time velocipede-riding was the rage in the United States. Rinks and riding-schools were opened in all the larger cities, and the fashion was almost as great as that for roller-skating a few years later. The fast youth of the period called the popular velocipede of the day, the "bone-shaker" and it required some dexterity to manage it. This had wheels of nearly equal size, the pedals being applied directly to the front wheels. The rider's position between the two front wheels was an uncomfortable one, and the clumsy machine well deserved its name.

The first bicycle of iron and steel was invented by another Frenchman, M. Mayer, also of Paris. Later on the principle of crank action, as applied to revolving wheels, becoming understood, the era of the bicycle was fairly inaugurated. Rubber tires and strong brakes rendered the motion easy, and one by one clever mechanics discovered improvements which have rapidly made the machine the beneficent institution which it is to-day—an actual comfort to thousands of men and women, who find in it a pleasant means of exercise and recreation. The low safety wheel made its appearance in 1883. The girl of the period soon found that she could ride her brother's wheel as well as he could, and the obliging American manufacturer forthwith made one specially adapted to her use, to be rewarded by the sale of as many as he could make. No one now doubts that the bicycle has come to stay. Its use has spread all over the world, and the prejudice against it which at first existed has almost disappeared. Its popularity, however, has declined, notably in the United States, where the number in use has fallen off enormously within recent years. It is now chiefly used for business purposes.

The motor-cycle, or automobile, is yet another astonishing product of the Nineteenth Century. Although its germ was evolved as long ago as 1769, when a French army surgeon rigged up a gun-carriage and a big copper boiler in such wise that it was driven by its own power. In 1784 a road engine was invented by a Cornishman, and in 1786 William Wymington designed a carriage which was propelled by a locomotive behind. The Orleton Amphibolus was a curiosity in Philadelphia in 1804. This was an odd sort of vehicle, mounted on wheels, and run by its own steam engine, which was part of the structure. When finished it was driven successfully to the Delaware River, where it was used for dredging the Philadelphia docks. Inventive mechanics produced more or less successful road-engines, until the

appearance and perfection of the locomotive brought railways into general use, and the need for them no longer seemed apparent.

The development of electricity and the perfection of the steam-engine have set inventors to devising new uses for them, especially for applications of that wonderful invention, the storage battery. The undertaking has met with fair success, and the motor-carriage is a common sight on the Parisian boulevards, and their use in American cities is rapidly increasing. Bicycles are frequently run in the same manner, and the use of the automobile is constantly becoming more general. Some of the electric trams are run by means of storage batteries without wires overhead.

For general use the petroleum gas engine is considered the best and most practical. This can be kept running, at a fair rate of speed, for three hundred miles with a few gallons of gasoline. In the United States the motor-carriage has reached a high degree of perfection.

The steamship is a child of the last century, and a wonderful change has been wrought since the day, less than a hundred years ago, when the American clipper ship was the queen of the seas, a greater change than had been brought about from the days of Noah's ark down to the beginning of the century. The changes have been due first to the application of steam as a motive power to vessels and then to a change of construction from wood to iron and steel. The application of steam to ships is, however, of earlier creation than the railroad. As with so many other things the germ of the idea is to be found in the discoveries of a previous century. There are many claimants to the honor, and although James Rumsey and John Fitch were the pioneers in this country, yet the first practicable steamboat was the *Clermont*, constructed by Robert Fulton in 1807. The *Clermont*, originally a canal boat, was built to run on the Hudson. In order of construction the *Clermont* was the sixteenth steamboat, but it was

the first to be used permanently. The trial was made August 7, while throngs of people crowded the banks to watch the sight, a few praying for success, but most of them certain that it would be a failure. There was a slight delay, but the boat went ahead on her trip and steam navigation was an accomplished fact.

The *Clermont* was a crude boat. She was 133 feet long, 18 feet beam and 160 tons and made only five miles an hour. But within a year two other boats built by Fulton were running between New York and Albany, the time being thirty-two hours, with a fare of \$7. The success of the experiment led to its imitation in England. The *Comet* was launched upon the Clyde in 1812. It was forty feet long and had a three horsepower engine.

These steamships were an important factor in the development of the newly settled portions of the United States. Before the days of the steamboat, methods of transportation were primitive. Four months were required for the journey from St. Louis to New Orleans. At Pittsburg in 1811 the first boat for Western rivers was built, and she made the trip to New Orleans. Great enthusiasm was aroused when, with the construction of the *Enterprise* in 1815, St. Louis was reached in twenty-five days from New Orleans.

It was not until 1826 that the first steamer ran up the Allegheny River, and in the same year the ship *Illinois* reached St. Louis from New York via New Orleans, 3,000 miles, in twenty-nine days and a half. From that time dates the palmy day of steamboating. In 1823 the time between St. Louis and New Orleans had been reduced to twelve days, in 1828 the *General Brown* made it in nine days and four hours, and in 1860 the running time had been reduced to three days. Now the steamboat has practically vanished from the Western rivers. The railroad has taken its place. But it survives on the great lakes of the North, where there is an enormous traffic.

The first steamer to cross the Atlantic was an American built ship, the

Savannah. The vessel had been built in New York as a sailing ship. She was 350 tons burden, clipper built, full-rigged and propelled by one inclined direct-acting low pressure engine, similar to those now in use. She had paddle wheels that could be taken out and put on deck. The Savannah steamed to the city in whose honor she was named and from there started for Liverpool May 24, 1819, making the voyage in twenty-five days, being under steam eighteen days. She used pitch pine as fuel, the use of coal in American steamers not having been introduced at that day. From Liverpool she went to St. Petersburg. For some years she ran between Savannah and New York, and finally ran aground in a storm off Long Island and went to pieces.

A ship wholly dependent upon steam was regarded for a long time as visionary. Nautical experts insisted that no vessel could carry fuel enough to supply her engines on a long voyage, and this was long accepted without dispute. The first vessel to make the journey without the use of sails and by steam alone was a Canadian vessel, the *Royal William*, built at Three Rivers in the Province of Quebec. She sailed from Quebec August 5, 1831, for London, putting into Picton en route and arrived at Gravesend September 16, after a voyage of 25 days from Picton.

Yet in spite of this Dr. Dionysius Lardner declared that "As well might they attempt a voyage to the moon, as to run regularly between England and New York." This feat was accomplished by two British vessels in 1838—the *Sirius* and the *Great Western*. The former was 178 feet long and of 703 tons, and the latter 256 feet and of 1,340 tons. The average speed of the former was seven knots and the latter 8.2 knots an hour.

America lagged behind England in the steam Atlantic trade. It was not until 1847 that the first American steamer was built expressly for the transatlantic trade. She was the *United States*, built at New York for the Black Ball line. The *United States* was a wonderful vessel in those days, being

256 feet long and of 2,000 tons burden. Her first voyage, made to Liverpool, occupied thirteen days. Seven years before, in 1840, Samuel Cunard began running ships from Liverpool to Boston, the *Britannia*, the first of the line, making the trip in fourteen days and eight hours.

In 1840 began the use of the screw propeller, and the construction of ships of iron. Captain John Ericsson is given the credit for the invention, but although he was the first to succeed in the application of the principle, it had been suggested and attempted by others in previous years. Ericsson built a small screw steamer in 1837 and invited the English lords of the admiralty to make a trip in his boat, which made ten miles an hour. But the board gave him no encouragement. Paddle wheels were universally used then, although now they are seldom or never seen on the ocean, and are used merely in rivers and other places where the paddle wheel is more satisfactory because of the shoals. Ericsson built a small steamer, seventy feet long, in 1839; he then came to America to develop his idea, and in 1841 designed the *Princeton*, the first man-of-war with a screw propeller. In the same year he designed the *Vanadalia*, the first screw propeller vessel constructed for business purposes, which was built at Oswego, N. Y., and navigated the Great Lakes. Gradually the principle of the screw propeller established itself and screw steamers were built both in America and England and employed in the coasting trade and in short sea voyages. But it was deemed a hazardous experiment to try and cross the Atlantic, especially in the winter months. The *Great Britain*, launched on the Mersey in 1843, was the first transatlantic steamer on which the principle of the screw propeller was applied. The *Great Britain* was designed by Brunel and was 332 feet long and of 3,200 tons.

The *Great Britain* is also remarkable in that Brunel substituted iron for wood. The metal had been used for hulls of river steamers as far back as 1820, but had not come into general use.

To-day over 90 per cent. of the steamers built in Great Britain each year are of iron, and the wooden ship is a relic of the past. This substitution of iron for wood gave a severe blow to the American merchant marine, and in fact one from which it has not yet fully recovered. When ships were made of wood the forests along our coasts furnished unusual opportunity for shipbuilding, and America indeed became queen of the seas. But the mineral resources of the United States were not sufficiently developed when the change came from wood to iron and the merchant marine of the United States suffered. This is, however, also due to the fact that the United States was occupied chiefly in internal development and railroads, manufactures and mining absorbed our attention, to the exclusion of foreign commerce. In recent years, however, there has been a great increase in shipbuilding, although this is still one of the few things in which the United States lags behind in the march of progress. With the improvements in steel it supplanted iron, it being better for every purpose.

Water-tight compartments had been used in wooden ships, but they were not practicable. The use of iron, however, made it possible to make use of this device by which the vessel is divided by bulkheads, and thus, while two or even three of the compartments may be open to the sea, the vessel will still float. The Royal William was the first important steamer to use water-tight compartments.

The increase in speed of steamships has been due chiefly to improvements in the marine engine. There has been great economy in fuel and steel has made engines stronger.

With these improvements came increase in the size of vessels, this being because large vessels are relatively more economical in fuel.

The introduction of steamships has brought forth inventions of all sorts for the improvement of their navigation and manipulation. So perfect are the liners now in use that the ocean greyhound may be stopped or reversed by

a child, while a single man is able to execute the order "hard a-helm" on a man-of-war going at full speed. Before the new hydraulic machinery was invented, three score men were barely sufficient to stop a fast steamer in full career. Thirty feet a minute is the usual rate at which model anchor engines raise the heaviest anchors in use. The hold of the vessel is illuminated to its farthest recesses by electric light, and the constant risk of fire from lanterns or lamps upset by the rolling of the ship is entirely done away with. Science balances the compasses so as to avoid all danger of their variation, that variation which previous to the discovery of the modern method of compensation wrecked so many stout vessels upon unexpected reefs. Steamers at full speed take soundings to the depth of 100 fathoms as a matter of course. The steam siren shrieks automatically at regular intervals in a heavy fog, and, last, but not least, when the good ship makes port, steam rings her bells, winds her cables around the capstan and runs the derricks which unload her cargo.

Safety has been of first consideration from the first, and statistics are quoted to prove that ocean travel is now no more dangerous than a railroad journey.

Comfort as well as speed and safety are results sought by the builders of ocean-going steamers, and the great vessels on the lakes that cater to the traveling public. In 1838 even the best kind of ocean traveling was excessively disagreeable. The supply of fresh food became exhausted a few days after leaving port. But there is now a complete revolution in this respect. Even the steerage passengers fare better than did the cabin passengers of the early days. The employment of cold storage and artificial refrigeration, together with the adaption of every improvement in life ashore, have arranged it so that a voyage on the ocean may be as comfortable as life at a first-class hotel. Only the motion remains to worry the person who is addicted to sea-sickness.

The problem of traversing space by means of apparatus under navigable control has for many years occupied the minds of inventors. Success in this direction has not been great, but the way has been made easier for those who are striving to attain the end. Ballooning, which involves the use of machines lighter than the air, does not present insuperable difficulties. Since the Brother Montgolfier ascended in 1783 by means of a fire balloon at Annonay, there has been no difficulty in making ascents of as great as five miles. The first successful attempt at propelling balloons was made by Giffard in 1852, the car being little more than a wooden platform with wheels to allow its running along on descending. More difficult has been the problem of aviation or the use of flying-machines, because of the necessity of using apparatus heavier than the air. One of the characteristics of aviation is a large supporting surface, either in the form of wings or an aeroplane which is used to carry the weight. Distinguished scientists believe that the problem will be solved before many years shall have passed.

As fascinating is the subject of submarine navigation. Many attempts have been made to solve this problem, and the great naval powers have designed submarine war vessels. The nearest to success was the Holland submarine boat. Submarine navigation is not yet an accomplished fact.

COMMUNICATION

A man in Florida may now send a letter to his friend in the Klondike gold fields for two cents, or for five cents he may send a letter to his friend in Australia. The development of the post-office has made this possible. Sixty years ago, even if communication had been open between these districts, such a feat and such a price was an impossibility. There are those who say that penny postage, as it is called from the English coin of the value

of two cents, is one of the greatest achievements of the last century. There is certainly nothing that has conduced more to the comfort of the people.

Post-offices are as old as history. Communications were sent either by couriers, pedestrians or in vehicles, but the splendid postal organization which now exists was then beyond the imagination of the man who lived at the beginning of the last century. There had been little development since the dawn of civilization. Relays of fast post horses shortened the distance, but in Washington's first term as President, the mails traveled at the rate of only four and a half miles an hour.

The development of the post-office has kept pace with the improvements of the means of communication, although perhaps this is not strictly true of the United States, where the telegraphs and telephones, unlike in most other civilized countries, are not under the control of the post-office department.

To England the world is indebted for the placing of correspondence by mail within the means of everyone. Sir Rowland Hill noticed that, although the population of England had increased 6,000,000 during the twenty years from 1815 to 1835, the postal receipts were slowly diminishing. To overcome this the postal authorities had increased the postal rates, but this led to a further decrease in receipts, and means were found to defraud the post-office. As the charge on the letter could not be paid by the sender, those away from home arranged codes of signals which should tell their friends of their welfare. All that was necessary was to send an empty envelope, which would be refused at the door. Newspapers with words underscored were also used, as they were sent through the mails free, a stamp tax being levied upon them. The finance account for the year showed that about one-fifth of the letters transported were "refused" by the persons to whom they were addressed. Hill found that the average cost of a letter was less than one penny, and he

urged that a uniform charge of 1d (2 cents) be made for the carriage of a letter, claiming that there would be an enormous increase in correspondence.

Penny postage finally became a fact and was in operation on January 10, 1840. In respect to the distance for which a letter is conveyed for two cents the United States is now the cheapest postal system in the world, but in the matter of cheap postage the United States was far behind Great Britain. Until 1863 the distances over which the mails were carried was the basis of the rates of postage. In 1845 the rates were: Not exceeding 300 miles, five cents; exceeding 300 miles, ten cents. By a law of 1851 the distance for which the minimum rate was charged was increased to 3,000 miles. The uniform rate of three cents was made in 1863, and in 1883 it was reduced to two cents, the rate which had been in force in Great Britain for forty-three years. The weight carried for the two-cent stamp was increased from a half ounce to one ounce in a few years, making a further reduction in the cost of communication by mail.

The money order system introduced in England in 1792 by a private company was adopted by the British post-office in 1838. The system was not employed in the United States until 1864. There has been a gradual reduction of fees.

The little bits of colored paper that are one of the principal adjuncts to the postal business were first used in England in July, 1840, and came into use in this country in July, 1847. There are now said to be as many as 9,300 varieties—some, of course, obsolete, and including the stamps on newsbands and those used as revenue stamps. Postal cards were first issued by Austria, and in the year 1870. They were adopted by the United States in 1873.

In the United States the free delivery system was authorized in 1885. Railways were first used by the United States for postal purposes in 1834. Other reforms have been the introduction of railway post-offices, electric street cars and pneumatic tubes.

The post-office does many things in other countries that it does not do in the United States. The parcels post was introduced in Great Britain in 1883, and transports small packages at a small charge. Most European countries now have a system of sending packages by mail cash on delivery, similar to our express companies. The telegraph business is a part of the post-office abroad. Free delivery now extends even into the rural districts. The United States has introduced the postal savings bank, which institution, for the benefit of small depositors, especially in the rural districts, was introduced by England in 1861. The pneumatic tube was first used in London in 1858, and in Boston in 1896.

The crowning triumph of the postal service was the establishment in 1874 of the Universal Postal Union, which includes nearly every nation with a post-office. Five cents is now all that is necessary to carry a letter to the uttermost part of the earth. An idea of the extension of the post-office may be obtained by a glance at the Congo Free State. The post-office department of that vast country was organized in 1885, and ten post-offices have since been established, making it possible to send a letter at a cost of five cents to the wilds of Central Africa. The cannibals who reside on the banks of the Arumwi River enjoy all the advantages of the Postal Union if they so desire.

Post-offices are now scattered over the various countries of the world, of which the largest number in any one country is in the United States. Figures scarcely convey an idea of the magnitude of the business that is annually transacted through the world's post-offices. The postal savings bank business has reached its highest development in Great Britain.

Long a dream of the imagination, the telegraph found its realization in the Nineteenth Century. Laplace suggested the idea of signaling by means of breaks in electrical currents. His idea was seized by others, and in 1832 Schilling, a Russian, devised a system of telegraphy in which thirty-six

needles were used. Gauss and Weber, two German physicists, established a line about three miles long at Göttingen; and Steinheil, working on their ideas, constructed several telegraph lines, radiating from Munich. Steinheil was the first to make use of the earth as a return current, thus using a single wire to carry each current, and connected to the earth at both the sending and receiving stations. Wheatstone, an English inventor, together with William F. Cooke, in 1836 took out a patent for a needle telegraph. The Wheatstone telegraph was tried successfully between Euston and Camden Town stations on the London & North-western railways, on July 25, 1837.

These early telegraphs were impracticable, and the credit of the invention of the electro-magnetic telegraph, which is the basis of the one used to-day, belongs to Samuel F. B. Morse, who began his experiments as early as 1832. His first practical instrument was perfected in 1836. It was a clumsy affair. His friends laughed at him, as inventors have always been laughed at, and he received no encouragement, but was ridiculed for spending all of his meager income on the useless toy. A caveat was filed at Washington, and in February, 1838, he, with Alfred Vail and Professor Gail, took the instrument to Washington and exhibited the telegraph on a ten-mile circuit to President Van Buren. They then asked an appropriation of thirty thousand dollars for an experimental line of fifty miles, but the appeal was not acted upon by Congress. For two years he wandered about Europe, trying to secure patents and aid. On his return he found that his partners had met with financial reverses and were unable to help him. He went to Washington in 1841, and set up his instrument and strung his wires. In the direst poverty, he explained his invention to Congressmen, who were amused, but regarded it merely as a toy. Finally, when he had only 37 cents left in his pockets, he secured the influence of a classmate, who undertook to get the appropriation through Congress. It was passed on the last day of the

session, at a few moments before midnight, and after eight years of waiting, Morse had what he had sought—an opportunity to show the world what he could do. Then began the construction of the line from Washington to Baltimore. When ten miles had been laid in pipes, it was found that the current grew weaker. The fault was due to induction, the carrying away of the electricity by the earth, and it was after much discussion that Vail's idea of stringing the wires on poles was adopted. On May, 1844, Morse was able to fulfill the promise he had made to Miss Annie G. Ellsworth, that her message should be the first sent over the line. In the presence of distinguished officials of the government, the message was sent. It was "What hath God wrought?" It became famous, and we are not yet sure of the answer.

The telegraph devised by Morse was crude. To his partners is due much of the development of the idea. Morse knew nothing of what is known as the Morse alphabet. Vail invented the dot and dash alphabet, which is now in universal use.

In the very beginning the recording instrument was replaced by the sounder, which was also of Vail's invention.

During the month of May, 1844, another opportunity for conspicuously demonstrating the value of the telegraph occurred when three important national conventions were held in Baltimore, and the news of their proceedings was instantaneously transmitted by the electric current to eager crowds of congressmen and others at the national capital. For one year the telegraph line was operated gratuitously, and then a small charge was made for messages by the postmaster-general, under whose direction it was. The government was offered the invention for \$100,000, but declined to buy it, and the development of the telegraph was left to private enterprise.

The improvement of the telegraph was rapid during the next decade. By 1847 a telegraph line ran from Washington to Albany, with many branches.

Lines were built on the Morse system in every part of Europe.

To-day the telegraph has developed to an enormous extent, and is used in every part of the world.

An interesting development of the telegraph which has been utilized in the United States and Great Britain, is the ability to send messages from moving trains.

Since the beginning of telegraphy, attempts have been made by various inventors to communicate without wires. Joseph Henry, of Washington, found in 1842 that when he threw an electric spark an inch long on a wide circuit in a room at the top of his house, electrical action was instantly set up in another circuit in the cellar. Visible means of communication between the two circuits being absent, he reasoned that the electric spark produced some kind of action in the other, and, passing through two fluids and ceilings 14 inches thick, caused induction in the wires in the cellar.

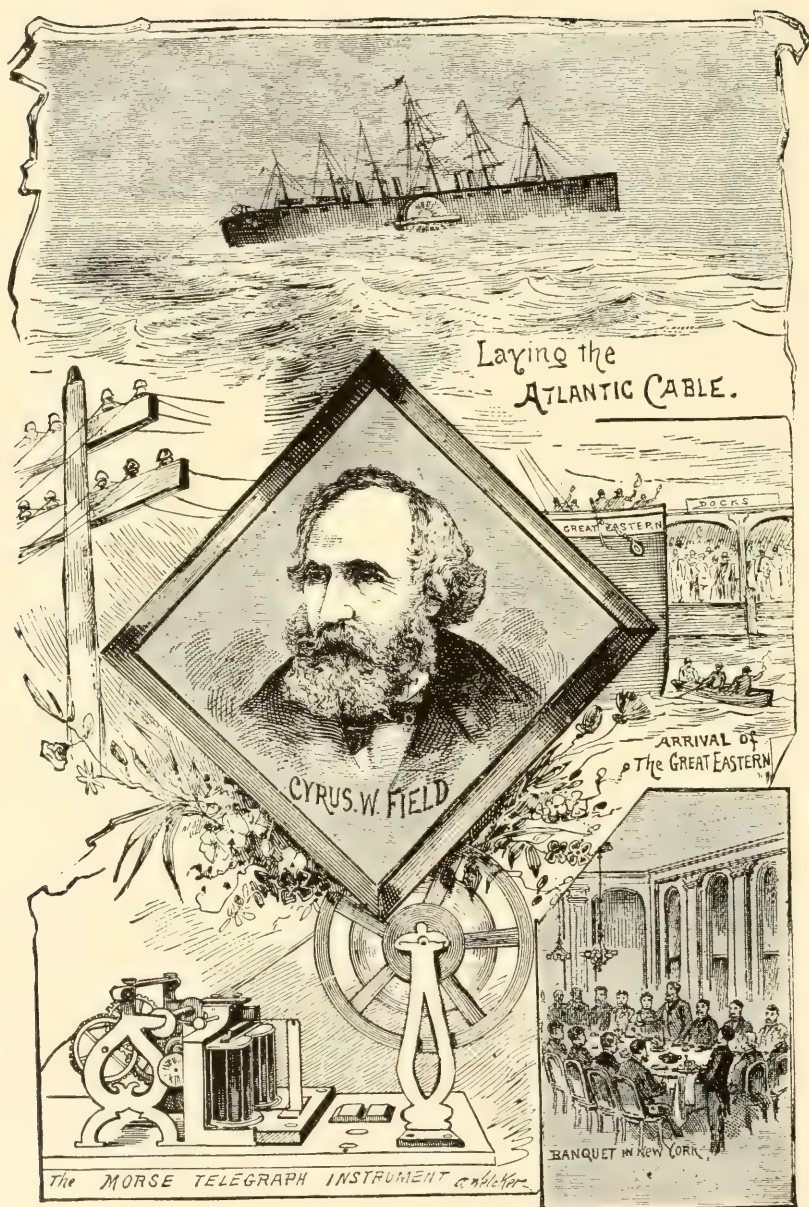
Edison's application of induction to telegraphy from moving trains, and Hertz's discovery that electric waves penetrate wood and brick, but not metal, are the bases upon which inventors of wireless telegraphy have worked. This was carried to its early stage of promise by an Italian electrician, Guglielmo Marconi, while at work in the laboratory of Prof. Righi, of Bologna. He was mainly indebted for the success of his experiment to W. H. Preece, Director of the English Postal System, whose official position enabled him to test it in the British Post-Office Department, these tests proving successful. The Marconi system of telegraphy depends not upon an electrical magnet, but on electrical vibrations—that is to say, on electrical waves—set up at a rate of 250,000,000 to the second. These vibrations travel through space in straight lines, and can be reflected and refracted like light—indeed, they are capable of all the phenomena of which light is susceptible.

The invention which dealt with the method of receiving and sending mes-

sages by this means was first experimented with on the roof of the post-office, and then for three-quarters of a mile on Salisbury Plain. Marconi was present that night, and this was the first occasion on which the apparatus was shown, except to government officials. The great difference between the systems, which had already been tried, and that of Mr. Marconi, was that in the former a wire on each side was necessary, while in the latter no wire was required. Vibrations were simply set up by one apparatus and received by the other, the secret being that the receiver must respond to the number of vibrations of the sender. The apparatus was then exhibited. What appeared to be just two ordinary boxes were stationed at each end of the room, the current set in motion at one, and a bell was immediately rung in the other. "To show that there was no deception," Mr. Marconi held the receiver and carried it about, the bell ringing whenever the vibrations at the other box were set up.

The most valuable use to which telegraphy without wires has up to the present time been put is communicating from ship to ship at sea, or between lightships and lighthouses; which not only adds to the convenience of navigation, but renders it more safe.

Practical use has not yet been made of the telautograph, which is the name given to the apparatus for the transmission of sketches and drawings by wire. The most successful of these inventions is that of Elisha Gray, of Chicago, which was put to practical use by the Chicago Times-Herald, on June 22, 1895. Using the ordinary telegraph wires, the Times-Herald was enabled to receive exact facsimiles of letters written in Cleveland by men in attendance at the national convention of Republican clubs. The fact that telegraphic sketches have not since come into general use shows that the telautograph has not yet reached a condition of real usefulness. An invention called the Telegraph Pen, devised by E. A. Cooper, of England, is somewhat similar, though less reliable.



TRIUMPH OF FAITH AND GENIUS

Even before Morse had succeeded in obtaining connection between Baltimore and Washington, inventors were at work upon methods for establishing communication through bodies of water as well as over stretches of land. The two banks on the Hoogly River in India had been connected as early as 1839 by a Mr. O'Shaughnessy, who made use of an insulated wire plunged into the stream. Wheatstone proposed to connect Dover and Calais by submarine telegraph cable in 1840, but it was ten years before the plan was realized, and then the cable broke, after transmitting only a few signals. In 1851 a new cable was laid. The development of submarine telegraphy was chiefly delayed by the difficulty of devising protection and insulation for the wire. Gutta-percha was used for this purpose in 1848, and the cable was laid across the Hudson River from Jersey City to New York. The cable was strengthened by a covering not only of gutta-percha, but by a layer of tarred hemp, which in its turn is covered and protected by galvanized iron wire twisted around the core.

Cables of increasing length were laid but the Atlantic Ocean still seemed an insuperable barrier between Europe and America. To Cyrus W. Field was due the realization of what had long appeared an impossible project. He organized a company for the purpose in 1854, but it was twelve years before they succeeded. These twelve years were filled with disappointing failures, which, however, did not daunt the indomitable pluck and energy of Mr. Field and his associates. The first attempt was made on August 7, 1857, by the United States frigate *Niagara*, which sailed from Valencia, Ireland, in the direction of Heart's Content, Newfoundland. The cable broke when about 400 miles had been laid, and the steamer returned. The next year another attempt was made. This time two ships separating in mid-ocean, proceeding shoreward, one to the east and one to the west, each laying cable as they separated. Again the cable broke; but a third attempt was made later in

the year, which saw the whole distance successfully spanned, and on August 16, 1858, Queen Victoria and President Buchanan exchanged congratulatory messages. Great was the joy over this triumph, but it was of short duration. Day by day the messages by the cable grew more indistinct, and finally ceased. Though laid, the cable was a failure.

Field was not discouraged, but his associates were, and for eight years the cable remained useless at the bottom of the sea. During this period the United States was torn with civil war, and the sympathy of Great Britain for the Confederate states aroused an enmity in the hearts of Americans which checked any desire for closer communication between the two countries. In spite of discouragement and previous failures, Field succeeded in reorganizing his company and making a new cable. The steamship *Great Eastern*, which was unavailable for ordinary uses of commerce, was chartered, and in this giant vessel a cable 2,273 nautical miles long, and weighing 300 pounds per mile, was stowed. More than half of it had been laid when the cable parted, and the broken end disappeared from view. Attempts to secure it proved futile, and the *Great Eastern* returned to Europe. Five cables were now at the bottom of the Atlantic Ocean, and they represented an expenditure of millions of dollars. Still Mr. Field did not despair, and he persuaded his associates to invest a still larger sum. Again the *Great Eastern* made another journey with a new cable, equal in length to the old. She started from Queensland, and without further serious misadventure, accomplished the whole distance on July 27, 1866. Telegraphic communication with Europe has been uninterrupted since that time. No greater triumph of engineering skill has ever been accomplished, nor can there be pointed out a more forceful object lesson in pluck and perseverance.

Since then the world has been girdled by cables. Communication has been made possible to the uttermost parts of the earth. When all the lines are clear it takes about 15 seconds to send a sin-

gle sign from London to New York. The great Pacific Ocean has been crossed and there is telegraphic communication between America and Asia.

Great as the telegraph is, still greater is the telephone. By it articulate speech, with all its shades of tone and quality, is so accurately transmitted and reproduced that the voice of a friend speaking at a great distance can be easily recognized. In the United States alone the use of the long distance telephone has brought forty million within speaking distance of each other. There is no more remarkable achievement of science than this. The speech of the telephone is as great an improvement over that of the telegraph as is the conversation of men over the chatter of monkeys.

But the telegraph did not suggest the telephone, and the two inventions have run along entirely different lines. Its first basis was the discovery of Page in 1837, that when substances are magnetized they emit sound. Philip Reis, a German schoolteacher, in 1860, utilizing this principle, managed to transmit both words and music over a short distance. Reis's experiment set several inventors at work along these lines, and the present electro-magnetic telephone was invented at about the same time by Graham Bell and Elisha Gray, both Americans. Bell's telephone is the one now in use. He exhibited his invention at the Philadelphia Centennial in 1876. By this it was made possible for two people to talk over a single wire for a distance of ten miles. Its principle was not the transmission of speech, but the mechanical reproduction thereof by means of the vibration of a thin sheet of iron near the listener's ear. The transmitter has a membrane, bearing on its center a small piece of iron placed opposite the poles of the electro-magnet. The receiver, in which is enclosed an electro-magnet, has fixed in the top a thin disc of iron, left free to vibrate. Sounds are produced by the vibration of this disc corresponding to currents of electricity from the other end.

Many improvements have been made in the arrangement of the receiver and

transmitter since Bell's instrument was invented, with a view to intensifying the effect in the receiver. Most important of these improvements is that of Prof. Hughes, who in 1878 discovered that if one piece of carbon be allowed to rest upon another and an electrical current be passed from one to the other in a circuit containing a Bell receiver, the lines will respond to very minute sounds in the vicinity of the carbons. This is called the microphone, and is in most transmitters. Copper wire instead of iron is used for trunk lines of telephones, because it is inductive, and the Bell telephone is extremely sensitive—so much so that conversation over one wire can often be heard on a neighboring wire.

The original telephone which made possible conversation between one person and another at a distance of ten miles, has been improved so that large numbers of persons are enabled to inter-communicate at will. This is due to the switchboard. The use of the telephone, like the telegraph, is universal.

LIGHT AND PHOTOGRAPHY

The history of fire as a light is both picturesque and interesting. It is thought to have been first utilized in volcanic districts, where sticks of wood can sometimes be ignited by thrusting them into subterranean cavities. The theory has also been advanced that primitive man came into possession through the agency of the electric storm, when trees might have been set on fire by lightning strokes. Or, as it is known that trees are sometimes fired by friction of dry branches, it is not impossible that prehistoric man became acquainted with the fierce element in that way. But by whatever means he did become familiar with fire—and it may have been any or all of these phenomena—the astute savage recognized its usefulness and the necessity for its preservation, and, at a presumably later age, discovered that he could produce it himself by friction.

This primitive custom, descending to civilized peoples, in time evolved into the more convenient flint and steel process, which probably did not originate until after iron was made. Thus the method of fire-getting by the rubbing of one substance on another continued in use from the days of prehistoric man, through all the ages of barbarism and civilization until early in the Nineteenth Century, with practically no improvement in all that period.

And then a great discovery was made. In April, 1827, John Walker, a chemist and druggist of Stockton-on-Tees, invented a fire-getting implement which consisted of a splint of wood tipped with a solution of chlorate of potash, sulphur, starch and gum, which ignited by friction on sandpaper or glass, and to which he gave the name of *congreve*, in honor of Sir William Congreve, inventor of the rocket. Another chemical discovery at the beginning of the last century gave further impetus to such an invention and ultimately led to the match as we know it to-day. The chemist Berthollet accidentally discovered what he termed the "principle of the oxidation of combustible bodies by chlorates in the presence of strong acids." Chancel, in 1805, made practical application of Berthollet's discovery and produced his so-called "oxymariate" matches. These consisted of strips of wood dipped in a mixture of chlorate of potash, sugar and gum, and were ignited by contact with sulphuric acid. As early as 1780 there had been in use an "electro-pneumatic fire producer," in which a jet of hydrogen was lighted by an electric spark. The Döbereiner "platinum lamp" came into existence in 1823. In this hydrogen gas was ignited by contact with spongy platinum. During the use of the platinum lamp there had also appeared in parts of Prussia a device consisting of a small glass tube, containing equal parts of phosphorus and sulphur carefully mixed together. Splints of wood were thrust into this, and the friction caused ignition.

John Walker's invention, modeled after the idea advanced by Berthollet,

was, however, the real precursor of our present day match, and even that had to be greatly improved upon before it was rendered practical or satisfactory. The Walker match contained no phosphorus, the absence of which was responsible for its not being a success commercially. In 1833 wooden friction matches containing phosphorus were manufactured in Vienna, Darmstadt and other European cities, and the use of the new implement spread rapidly. On October 24, 1836, A. D. Phillips, of Springfield, Mass., took out the first patent in the United States for a phosphorus match, the igniting composition being a mixture of sulphur. By this time the people commenced to gain sufficient confidence in the innovation to throw away their ill-smelling and clumsy old tinder boxes, and matches came into use all over the civilized world. Lundström, of Jonköping, Sweden, invented the first safety match in 1855. His process consisted in putting the oxidizing mixture on the splint and what is known as red phosphorus (a safe form of that chemical) on the box. The new match was a great improvement on the original, and led to the discovery of other non-dangerous igniting mixtures. The use of the safety match was enforced by law in various countries of Europe, and to this day the use of Swedish safety matches only is allowed in Denmark and Switzerland. In late years, however, by the enforcement of regulations regarding ventilation, cleanliness, and the impregnation of the air of the factory with turpentine fumes, match-making has been relieved of almost every element of danger to its workers, and the match itself is quite as harmless as its cumbrous predecessor.

Rivaling in importance the improvement in the process of fire-producing, are the advances that have been made in the methods for its utilization for illuminating purposes. From a tallow candle to an arc light is a far cry, and yet less than a century ago even the common oil lamp as we know it to-day was unheard of. The nearest approach to the modern kerosene lamp was a

rudely constructed vessel filled with melted animal oil and enclosed in a glass case, and which was really the original prototype of our modern lantern. What was called a lamp consisted of a small earthenware cup and contained melted animal fat or vegetable oil, into which a wick was introduced. The wealth and nobility of the world had no better means of illumination than had the simplest laborer. The gold and silver vessels in the palace were the exact counterparts of the crude clay lamps in the peasant's cottage. For out-of-door lights torches were used almost exclusively in the cities, and their mode of preparation differed very little from that employed in the middle ages. They were made of the twigs of resinous woods tied together in a bundle and mounted on a tall sapling or post. For all practical purposes the tallow candle and the more elegant wax taper stood paramount at the beginning of the Nineteenth Century. It is almost impossible to realize that we have been using lamp chimneys not quite one hundred years, and that the Argand burner, although invented late in the Eighteenth Century, was not sufficiently improved and cheapened to come into general use until 1830. While not so glorious as the discovery of electric light and of coal gas, the invention of the Argand burner and the subsequent application of the glass chimney as a means of supplying a regular current of air to the flame, marked a distinct epoch in civilization.

So perfect has the common oil lamp now become that with the use of the cheap mineral oils, its light in many instances rivals that of the gas jet or the incandescent lamp. And yet these very mineral oils, almost as plentiful as water to the present generation, were practically unknown to the people of the Eighteenth Century.

Next in importance to the improvement of the oil lamp as a means of illumination was the discovery and introduction of coal gas, which belongs almost exclusively to the category of Nineteenth Century achievements. Although his first experiment took place

in 1792, it was not until 1802, on the occasion of the celebration of the Peace of Amiens, that Murdock, a Redmuth engineer, made a public display of his process of utilizing the gaseous products of coal for illumination. Though Murdock was the first to put gas to a practical use, he was not its original discoverer. So far as can be learned, that distinction belongs to a Dr. Clayton, who, about a hundred years before, had conceived the idea of heating coal in such a manner as to force out and retain its gaseous constituents. He left an interesting description of his experiment, which he evidently considered more in the nature of a huge joke than anything else.

And so it remained until Murdock's time—a chemical wonder—a mysterious and evil-smelling "spirit." In 1807 a few gas lamps were placed in the streets of London, but not until 1813 did its use become at all general. In that year Westminster Bridge was illuminated with it, and then it came rapidly into use, not only for lighting private houses, but for dwellings and public buildings. Like all innovations, it met with fierce opposition in every direction. Peale, in his museum in the State House at Philadelphia, had as early as 1816 or 1817 produced a fine illumination through the use of gas obtained from a private plant belonging to a man on Lombard Street, whose dwelling was probably the first in America to be lighted with gas.

The Council of Philadelphia, with much misgiving, reluctantly granted an ordinance for the use of gas. After the victory in Philadelphia, the use of gas spread rapidly all over the country, with the result that now every great coal region has its corresponding area of coke ovens, or gas retorts.

The discovery of oil pools of fabulous contents in America not only had a great influence in bringing about better illumination for the great middle class, but it introduced a new kind of fuel, which, for a time, appeared to be inexhaustible. The same territory which produces petroleum also abounds in greater or less deposits of natural

gas, which for a number of years now has served the purpose of fuel to a large part of the population of the United States.

But the use of gas for heating purposes is not restricted to the radius of territory fortunate enough to produce the natural element. The manufactured product is fast taking the place of coal all over the country, for cooking purposes at least. It has been proved to be the best and often the most economical cooking power in existence, as there is no waste to it as with coal. With the development of improved and inexpensive processes for the manufacture of gas, who shall say that the day may not come when the coal fire will have entirely disappeared? Who knows but that a few generations hence the use of the begriming mineral as a fuel in its natural state will be as archaic as would be to us the use of the flint and steel?

The story of the discovery of acetylene gas might be called one of the romances of science. The new illuminant had been known to chemists for years, but the difficulty of its manufacture prevented them from using it. In 1895 T. L. Wilson, of North Carolina, while superintending the production of aluminum by the electric smelting process, noticed a by-product of the operation, the nature and character of which was unknown to him. Upon throwing the substance into a bucket of water a gas was given off, whose chief characteristic seemed to be its penetrating and disagreeable odor. On applying a light Mr. Wilson discovered that the gas burned freely with a luminous flame. A repetition of the experiment proved the unknown substance to be calcic carbide. It was found that a pound of this calcic carbide would yield 5.3 cubic feet of acetylene gas, and a company was formed to manufacture the gas on a large scale. From an economic point of view this gas is of great value, for it can be generated in a hotse as needed, by a very simple apparatus. Perhaps the most remarkable quality of the gas is the fact that it can be liquified by pressure and put in cans that can

be tapped when the gas is needed. A very simple device has been arranged by which the pressure of the gas can be regulated while changing from its liquified condition, and then pass into the various pipes. Acetylene is a most powerful illuminant. It is dazzling in the brightness and steadfastness of its flame, and for this reason is much used in the illumination of bicycles and carriages. It has been conjectured that it may in time supplant coal gas in the illumination of streets, thereby doing away with gas piping, for it is said that lamps can be made in such manner as to generate the gas on the spot. It has been proved that the acetylene can be manufactured at one-third the present cost of coal gas, and in view of this fact it is entirely possible that if the discovery proves as practical as claimed, it will revolutionize the manufacture of gas.

The electric spark had been familiar to the earlier experimenters with electricity, but not much more familiar than it had been to the ancient philosophers. But it remained for Sir Humphrey Davy, the Cornish philosopher, to seize the evanescent spark and make it burn into a brilliant glow by passing it between two points of carbon.

Arc lamps constructed on the principle discovered by Davy constitute the most luminous artificial light of the present time. Many ingenious lamps have been invented, all embodying the one original idea. Those devised by Serrin, Siemens, Brockie and Duboscq are probably the best known. Some of them regulate the arc by clockwork and electro-magnetism, and others by thermal effects of the electric current. They are used principally for out-of-door illumination, for large areas, streets, railway stations and lighthouses. In the latter instance the arc is placed exactly in the focus of the condensing lenses of a parabolic mirror, which projects the rays all in any one direction, the beam being visible for thirty miles on clear nights. Specially constructed arc lights, equivalent to hundred of thousands of candles, can cast a beam

of light a distance of one hundred and fifty miles.

In 1880 Thomas Edison constructed an incandescent lamp of commercial value that has now reached a state of apparent perfection.

Since electric light has proved to be so great a success, electric heating for all purposes bids fair to soon become fully as important as electric illumination. The electric arc is now applied freely in the iron and steel industries for the welding of boiler plates, wires, rails and indeed all kinds of metal work. It is also used with great success in the heating of railroad trains, carriages and dwelling houses. Cooking by electricity is coming more and more into favor. Kitchen ranges, entirely heated by the electric current, are used in many of the best hotels and fine dwellings of the country. There have also been invented a number of cooking utensils equipped individually with batteries for the generation of the electric current. The principle on which all such articles are based is that of incandescence, the current flowing through a network of fine wires of platinum covered with fire-proof insulating cement at its bottom. The electric radiator is constructed pretty much after the fashion of the steam radiator, which it resembles in appearance, the heat from a strong current being diffused over an area of highly resisting metal. The devices for the utilization of electric heat that have been patented in the past few years are unique and numerous. It is now possible to have bed clothing heated to any degree and a constant temperature maintained, by means of a fine wire network enclosed between the quilts and connecting with an electric current.

One of the most curious properties of light is its ability to trace images under certain conditions, called photography.

From the early history of photography it would appear that it was the amusement of all the great philosophers, and it remained for M. Niepce, a French scientist, to continue with so much success that he is justly entitled

to the honor of making the most suggestive developments in connection with the discovery of photography. From 1801 until the end of his life, Niepce devoted himself to his idea of heliography (from helios, the sun). Niepce discovered that asphalt will become soluble in certain oils. Mixing the asphalt with oil of lavender, he poured the solution over a metal plate, allowing it to dry and form a film. When placed where the image of the camera obscura fell upon it, the result was that the asphalt remained soluble where the shadows had fallen, but became insoluble where the light had struck the film. By several hours exposure in the camera, and a subsequent application of essential oils, Niepce secured a heliograph traced upon the metal plate in lines of asphalt.

The name that is most familiar in the history of early photography is that of Louis Jacques Daguerre, to whom for many years was accorded the chief honor of the invention of photography. The discovery of the daguerreotype was purely accidental. Several plates that had been under-exposed were placed in a dark room in which were various chemicals. The plates were thought to be useless, as no images had appeared. Some time afterwards, in searching for something else, Daguerre discovered the discarded plates, and, to his amazement, there was a picture on each one of them. He accounted for the phenomenon only by the fact that the plates must have been exposed to the action of some chemical lying in proximity to the plates. Removing the chemicals one by one, he discovered that the secret of the art was concealed in a vessel of mercury, which evaporates at an ordinary temperature. This incident occurred some years subsequent to Niepce's death, and according to the term of the agreement he made with Daguerre, his name would also have been attached to the discovery, had it not been that after Niepce's death his son relinquished this right for material considerations.

Thus far photography had only been employed upon metal. Henry Fox-

Talbot, after years of faithful experiment, solved the problem of "fixing" a photograph on sensitized paper. In the year 1850, the collodion-film on glass was perfected and came into use as a sensitizing material. This method produced as beautiful a likeness as the daguerreotype itself and at much less cost. Shortly afterward positives were printed from the transparent negatives on properly prepared paper, and thus the process now in use was initiated. There have been endless modifications and improvements upon the original method, mainly to the end of increasing the sensitiveness of the plates so that quickly moving objects could be photographed with lifelike accuracy.

It has long been the dream of photographers to discover some method by which they could produce photographs in all the colors of nature. Thus far the process has not been perfected, but the developments of the past few years are extremely encouraging.

It would be difficult to name a branch of industry or science which has not been benefited by photography. The applications to which it has been put are quite as marvelous as the art itself. Late in the year 1895 a great sensation was caused throughout the civilized world by the announcement that a German scientist, Professor Röntgen, of Würzburg, had succeeded in photographing the bones of the hand through its covering of flesh by the agency of rays known as X-rays proceeding from a spherical glass tube. The instrument by which the New Photography was first observed is known to scientists as the Crookes' tube, so called from the fact of its first experiment in England being made by Professor Crookes.

Scarcely less of a surprise than the X-rays to the world was the development of photography in the form of the Cinematograph, the Kinetoscope, the Theatrograph, etc., all of which might be properly termed "animated photography." The first patentee of this interesting application of the photographers' art was W. Friese-Greene, who invented a camera in 1889 for the

rapid taking of consecutive photographic views; combined with the camera was an optical lantern which threw the images of the camera upon a screen, and by means of a handle the successive pictures were moved so rapidly as to give the appearance of life. The idea was not exactly new. It had been experimented with before by both Marey and Muybridge, and was known as the zootrope or the wheel-of-life. But Friese-Greene was the first to construct a machine for popular purposes. About the same time that Friese-Greene was taking out his patent Edison came forth with his Kinetoscope, constructed on the same principle. The Kinetoscope was soon followed by the Cinematograph and various other inventions, all embodying the same idea, and designed for the same purpose—that of amusement. These apparati have since become so perfected that they can present a moving scene with almost lifelike fidelity.

The application of photography to the printing industry has been in incalculable value to civilization, in that it has had a tendency to materially decrease the price of books and engravings. These applications have been many, but the chief one is the process of photoblock printing, invented by Walter B. Woodbury in 1866, which he followed up a few years later with the stannotype. By these inventions photo-engraving has become one of the fine arts. The system of letter press printing, by which an author's own manuscript may be printed from in his own chirography, is another application of the art of photography which is as marvelous as the Kinetoscope or the X-rays. This process is the invention of Mr. Friese-Greene, and was suggested to him while experimenting with another invention.

MOUND BUILDERS AND CLIFF DWELLERS

The Mound Builders are supposed to have lived over two thousand years ago, but, to-day, their earthworks still exist in large numbers in the river valleys and plain which they inhabited. In

Ohio alone there are nearly ten thousand artificially constructed mounds, and in the neighborhood of Trempealeau, Wisconsin, almost two thousand. But the mounds are not confined to a few states, being found in almost every section of the Union, and in Mexico. They are rarer in British America. They vary vastly in size and shape. Many of them exhibit mathematical regularity, being built in geometrical figures, others are shaped to resemble animals, including man. The "Serpent Mound" in Ohio is gigantic, being more than one thousand feet long, and is regarded by archaeologists as the most remarkable of all the structures built by this singular people. Through the efforts of F. W. Putnam, the eminent archaeologist, the Serpent Mound was purchased by the American Association for the Advancement of Science and presented to the Peabody Museum of Harvard University. Soon afterwards, the trustees of the museum made the additional purchase of seventy acres of land immediately surrounding the mound, and the whole was laid out as a public park. The serpent measures 1,254 feet in length from the tip of the upper jaw to the end of the tail. The jaws are open as if to swallow the oval commonly known as the egg. Viewed as a whole, it appears as though the huge python were creeping forward to seize the oval, which gives it a wierd lifelike appearance. Such structures as the Serpent Mound are called "effigy mounds." Many curious "effigy mounds" have been discovered, some of them representing men, panthers, wild cats, lizards, raccoons, tortoises, spiders, and squirrels.

Many of the earthworks of the Mound Builders are breastworks and fortresses, and it has been found that their builders, who lived so long ago, were skilful enough to erect defence walls, redoubts and other fortifications, choosing their sites with the acumen of trained engineers. Archaeologists have lately discovered that their fortifications are connected by deep trenches and admirably constructed secret pas-

sages. Some of the high mounds built on hill tops were evidently used as observation posts from which to signal or to spy on the movements of enemies. Excavation and exploration are revealing more and more about these interesting people, but, in spite of the numerous relics unearthed from their mounds and the patient investigations of archaeologists, many of their secrets seem to be lost forever.

The wonderful structures of Colorado, Arizona, New Mexico and Utah, known as the cliff-dwellings, are still a puzzle to archaeologists. Why did these prehistoric people build so high? Science has no better answer than that they builded because they found the caverns in which to build. However, this answer seems insufficient, since the Pueblos, who seem to be descended from them, are much nearer the level of the ordinary habitations of men. Traditions in all tribes from Oregon to Mexico agree in the story of a great flood, ages and ages ago, which but few escaped, and the question arises whether the Cliff Dwellers, like the builders of the Tower of Babel, may not have intended to build so high as to avoid such danger in future.

These singular habitations are found within an area of three hundred miles square in the steep cliffs which border the canyons of that region. The rock of the cliffs runs in layers with ledges and galleries varying from a few feet in extent to a thousand and fifty feet wide. On these ledges the Cliff Dwellers erected their homes. The houses vary much, as do human dwellings everywhere, some being small adobe structures like huge swallows' nests, other substantial stone houses with three or four stories, though the stories are rarely more than six feet in height, others yet show the ruins of towers. The stone edifices are built of blocks of stone cut into regular shape and held together by adobe cement. The roofs are constructed of a layer of pine or cedar poles crossed by another of small sticks and covered with adobe cement into which vegetable fiber was pressed. Six by eight to eight by ten

was the usual size of the rooms.

Estimates place the period at which the dwellings of the Cliff Dwellers were abandoned at thousands of years ago, but the relics found in their graves, their dwellings, and refuse heaps show them to have attained a degree of civilization as high as that of the Moquis, or even the Aztecs. The skulls show fully average brain capacity. The mummies prove that the men reached a height of six feet, while some of the women stood five feet, seven inches. The skull of one woman has soft reddish-brown hair still adhering, which is neither wiry like the Indian's nor woolly like the negro's, but is as fine and as straight as that of a Caucasian. Among the relics of the Cliff Dwellers are spear-heads, arrows and throwing-sticks, basket work which equals anything done by modern workmen and, most wonderful of all, a robe of feathers and fur in quaint pattern and coloring. Their wooden vessels were painted with a resinous substance which filled the pores of the wood and hardened, rendering them waterproof. In the grave of one woman were found several bracelets of turquoise beads and a small pouch of skin containing yucca fiber with two finely pointed pricklers. Their bone needles and spoons show clever workmanship, and their pottery closely resembled that of the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico.

From their eyrie-like adobes the Cliff Dwellers are supposed to have descended after their number became much greater. Then were built the rounded towns on plains or table lands. To them were applied the ancient architecture of their forefathers. High, perpendicular walls, artificially constructed, took the place of the sheer walls of the canyons, and from them houses were built, descending in terraced stories exactly as houses had been built from the natural walls of canyons.

All the dwellings faced the open court. Thus the court took the place of the canyon which the ancient dwellings overlooked. Not only were the main features of the cliff-dwellings transferred to the rounded towns of the plains, but inconspicuous details which had been admirably suited to the exigencies of the cliffs were exactly copied on the plains with no apparent reason except the prompting of long usage.

The great difference in the houses of the Cliff Dwellers gives rise to the belief that there were two distinct races of these peoples. Frank Hamilton Cushing, who has lived among the Zuni Indians for years, says that the "cave dwellings," usually further down on the cliffs, are of an older type than the "cliff-dwellings." The "cliff-dwellings" are rounded, while the "cave-dwellings" are rectangular. The Zuni Indians are supposed to be descended from a union of the two kinds of Cliff Dwellers who came together after they had built their towns on the plains. This is attested by the fact that the Zunis have among their wealth of legends one in which is told of the coming together of the "People of the Midmost" and the "Dwellers-in-the-towns-built-round." Gradually the building customs of the "People of the Midmost" who builded "square" superceded the customs of the people who builded "round." So, when the white man came to America, he found the Zunis dwelling in square towns, and only ruins bore witness to the round ones.

The Zunis are particularly interesting to study, being more like the archaic peoples of America than any other of the Indians, even among the Pueblos. Although more highly developed in many ways than any of the aborigines, they retain many of the ancient myths and customs of their ancestors.

ANTHROPOLOGY.

Archæology, aided by geology and paleontology, has shown us the life of primeval man.

When did man first appear on the earth? The remains of quadrupeds resembling most of our mammals are found in the stratified rock belonging to that part of the tertiary epoch known as the eocene. Fossil anthropoid apes have been found in miocene strata, and it is thought that man may have begun his existence on the globe at the same time. Both miocene and pliocene rocks tell little about man. The gradual cooling of the earth which resulted in the glacial epoch seems to have banished apes from Europe, but many traces of man are found throughout the ice age. There were at least three well defined glacial periods, and there is evidence that man lived in Western Europe in the first of these periods, or early in the quaternary epoch. It has been estimated that the ice age began 240,000 years ago and lasted, including all three glacial periods and intervening milder times, 160,000 years. The first portion of man's existence on the earth is called the palæolithic or ancient stone age. To it belong the chipped flint or other unpolished stone implements. To the neolithic or later stone age belong polished stone axes, hammers, rude pottery and personal ornaments sometimes of jade and of gold. The bronze age shows fine flint implements, pure copper and molded bronze ones. All prehistoric races seem to have been acquainted with fire, and all except the cave-dwellers of the palæolithic period had hand-made pottery. No definite dates can be assigned to these ages. Roughly speaking, the early stone age lasted throughout the glacial age. The later stone age lasted in Europe until a comparatively recent period, being followed by a short bronze age which merged gradually into an iron age. But there is no definite division between the ages either in time or country.

Curiously shaped pieces of stone, crudely resembling weapons, have been

found in different parts of the world for thousands of years.

After the revival of learning, a Natural Explanation was sought for the origin of these chipped and polished stones. About the beginning of the Eighteenth Century a large weapon of chipped flint was found with the bones of an elephant in a bed of gravel in London. This looked as though the rude stone weapon had been used to kill the elephant in a bygone age. Explorations and excavations made by private individuals in various parts of Europe revealed other chipped or polished flint instruments in juxtaposition to bones of beasts or men.

During the high civilization of the Greeks and Romans the tribes on the shore of the Baltic Sea were still in the early stone age, and the Lapps, who to this day have made less progress than any other European people, were savages of the most primitive type. Tacitus describes them as "abjectly poor and wonderfully savage. They have no homes," says he, "no arms; they dress in the skins of wild beasts; they sleep on the bare ground; they have no iron, and their arrows are tipped with bone. Like the men, the women live by hunting, accompanying them in their wanderings and sharing their prey. They weave nests from branches of trees to cover their little children. These are the homes of the young and the resting places of the old; still they consider such privations preferable to the work of tilling the fields, building houses and, alternating between hope and fear for themselves and those belonging to them, careless of man, regardless of the gods, they have reached that most desperate state where they feel no need of prayer."

Very like this was the state of primitive man. He lived only for the day and took no thought for the morrow. A shelter of boughs was his only home, unless he was fortunate enough to find a cave in which to take refuge, and for this he was probably obliged to do battle either with some wild beast or his fellow man before he could occupy it. Like the North American Indian,

he wandered over the earth, following the game on which he depended for food for himself, his mate and their young. His pairing was usually permanent, and his offspring he cared for to the best of his ability, except in the case of the feeble and sickly, who were often slain without mercy. It was a case of the survival of the fittest. He had no home to protect, no property, beyond his weapons, to defend; no sympathy outside of his little family group; and the tribal state, which grew from the natural increase of families, was a decided advance in his social progress. Multitude of documents thousands of years old have been brought to light by excavations at Babylon, Nineveh and Nippur and through their perusal the long-forgotten past has yielded up its history and legends.

The decipherment of the cuneiform inscription of Asia was begun by Georg Friedrich Grotefend, of Hanover.

In February 1802, he submitted to the Academy of Göttingen the first translation of the cuneiform alphabet. Other patient philologists followed in Grotefend's footsteps.

In 1835 Henry Rawlinson applied himself to the work and accomplished the mighty feat of copying and reading the Behistun inscription of more than one thousand lines.

Inscriptions in the Persian cuneiform writing were usually accompanied by parallel columns in Median and Babylonian-Assyrian, each of the three languages having a different alphabet. The Archæmenian kings issued their decrees thus in order that they might be read by the three principal nations whom they ruled. Slow and laborious as was the task of mastering the numerous and varied cuneiform characters, archæologists have had their reward.

Through the enterprise and diligence of P. E. Batta, French Consul at Mosul, and his consular successor, Victor Place, Assyrian explorations were furthered, the palace of the mighty Sargon was unearthed and explored between the years 1843 and

1855. This achievement prompted Austin Henry Layard to explore Nineveh, Calah and other ruined cities of Babylonia and Assyria, which he did with marked success, finding a wealth of sculptures and inscriptions.

In 1872 George Smith discovered tablets containing the story of the deluge agreeing essentially with the Biblical account of the Flood. These tablets are now in the British museum.

In 1888 the University of Pennsylvania sent out a scientific expedition under Dr. Peters to explore the ruins of Nippur or Niffur, said to be the oldest city in the world, near ancient Babylon. The number of tablets, inscribed vases, and the value of the cuneiform texts found therein rivaled the results of the explorations of Layard at Nineveh, and the explorers thought that they had found the very foundations of the ancient Nippur. Records of the time of Sargon and King Ur-Gur were discovered and a floor or platform was reached which was supposed to be the ground level of the city. It was then thought that the earth had no deeper secrets to reveal. But one of the exploring party suggested that the digging should be continued until either virgin soil or bed rock should be reached.

The excavating had already been carried to a depth of thirty-six feet. It was now continued for thirty feet further. It was found that what had been thought to be the ruins of the ancient city of Nippur were in reality the ruins of a much later city, built above the ruins of an archaic Nippur dating from not later than 6000 years B. C. Some Assyriologists claim that the relics of this ancient city date back to more than 7000 years B. C.

The inhabitants of this old, old city were in a high state of civilization, which necessarily must have taken centuries for its development. It has been calculated that man must have lived in the valley of the Euphrates for at least ten thousand years before Christ.

This need not conflict with the Bible. The system of chronology affixed to the Bible in its margins is not a part of

the sacred text, but an estimate made over two hundred and sixty years ago by Archbishop Ussher and others, with the aid of the best light afforded by the scholarship of the day.

In 1799, during the French occupation of Egypt, a French officer of engineers, M. Boussard, discovered in an excavation made near Rosetta, a rude block of black basalt. Soon after the French fleet was defeated at Aboukir and the mouths of the Nile were occupied by the English. The "Rosetta stone" fell into the hands of Sir William Hamilton, and in 1802 was presented to the British Museum.

This "priceless jewel" of the archaeologists furnished the key to the inscriptions on ancient Egyptian monuments and tombs; for, when examined, it was found to bear an inscription in three languages, one written in hieroglyphics, one in demotic, or Middle Egyptian, and the third in Greek. The hieroglyphics, by means of the other two renderings of the inscription, were interpreted with much patient labor by Young and Champollion.

The discovery of another trilingual inscription by Lepsius in 1866 while making researches at Tanis confirmed the results of the work of the hieroglyphic readers.

The most ancient Egyptian inscriptions on monuments and tombs are now read, and the life of the people who lived on the banks of the Nile more than six thousand years ago is as open to us as though a thing of yesterday, and the "wisdom of Egypt," so long a sealed book, is ours.

The first of the Egyptian kings mentioned on the monuments of the Nile valley is Mena or Menes, who was the founder of Memphis. Careful study of the lists of monarchs and of court architects found at Karnak, Sacquarah, and at Abydos has convinced archaeologists that Menes lived over three thousand years B. C., at the lowest estimate. Yet at that remote period Egyptian civilization was so highly advanced that Menes began the building of his capital by a mighty feat of engineering—that of diverting the Nile

from its channel in order to protect the city against invasion from the deserts on the east. The earliest monuments of Egypt depict a high state of civilization with a complex social order, skillful and beautiful architecture, truly artistic sculpture and painting, and some knowledge of astronomy. Philologists testify that "the oldest monuments of the world show Egypt in possession of the art of writing," and with a highly developed language. These facts, in connection with the knowledge that in the earlier stages of civilization the growth of ideas is much slower than it is later, have led to the conclusion that man lived in the valley of the Nile for many thousands of years before the reign of Menes. Borings in the Nile valley have brought to light pottery and other relics of a simple civilization which were buried so far beneath the surface of the earth that, at the rate of the Nile deposit, it must have taken over eleven thousand years to cover them. And, buried in limestone hills and formations which nature has taken thousands and thousands of years to build, have been discovered evidences of a stone age when man in Egypt, like prehistoric man on any other part of the globe, made his implements and weapons of rudely chipped stone.

AVIATION.

Aviation, of which we have previously written, had by the year 1914 almost attained perfection. The aviator, or birdman, successfully controls the apparatus, ascending and descending at will, guiding the machine in any direction desired, making flights of over 1500 miles, attaining a speed of over 90 miles an hour, and even the sea has no terror for a descent.

The year 1907 witnessed many important developments in aeronautics. The successful application of the automobile motor to balloons already had put the construction of dirigible airships or aerostats beyond the experimental point, and as many of the airships of 1907 were developed from the previous models, it is desirable here to consider what had been accomplished

in the few preceding years. The most successful of the gas inflated dirigibles were those of M. L. Bandy, which in 1903 and 1904 were thoroughly tested. (Leo Stevens in 1900 had constructed the first dirigible in the United States.) In artificial flight with machines heavier than air as distinguished from mere balloons, the late Professor Langley, after much experimenting, constructed a full size aerodrome. This machine was tested in 1903, and while not successful, was of the greatest assistance to subsequent workers; and in 1907 an aeroplane, designed by Bleriot, which embodied essentially Langley's principles, was successful. In 1903 Messrs. Orville and Wilbur Wright accomplished the successful flight of a heavier than air machine. This success, though only the mere fact and but little description has ever been recorded, produced considerable interest in aeroplanes; in February 1906 Vinea was the first to demonstrate that an aeroplane, whose frame was mounted on light bicycle wheels, could be made to rise in the air when driven along an ordinary road; Santos Dumont now devoted himself to constructing an aeroplane, 14 bis, or the "Bird of Prey," which with the operator weighed 650 lbs., and was able to fly 655 feet (November 12, 1906); he continued his experiments building several machines with varying success. Short flights were also made in an aeroplane of the monoplane type, designed by Robert Esnault-Pelterie; this machine was tested in flights of from 150 to 500 feet, with turns, on October 27, 1907.

Perhaps the most striking achievement of 1907 was the Farman aeroplane, which was believed to embody many of the ideas of the Wright Brothers. It was constructed in Paris by the Messrs. Voisin and consists of two curved parallel planes, with a large two-plane horizontal rudder in front, the total weight of the machine is 1100 pounds. On October 15th Farman made his first successful flight, going 935 feet at a speed of 25 miles per hour, breaking Santos-Dumont's record

of 723 feet; fitting a larger propeller to his machine, he made a number of successful flights with the apparatus under complete control, and on October 26th he made a flight of 2530 feet, nearly half a mile, in 52 seconds; in a series of successful attempts on this day Farman was able to win the Archdeacon Cup and a cash prize of the Aviation Club de France for the first flight of 984 feet or more.

These successes were followed by inventors working industriously on all types of heavier than air machines. During the year 1908 the Wright brothers both in the United States and France demonstrated the complete success of heavier than air machines, by flights that complied with all the requirements then demanded. The next important aeroplane was that of Bleriot, known as a monoplane for its single supporting surface; with one of these the inventor made a notable flight of 17.38 miles with an average speed of 53.78 miles an hour; but the bi-plane seemed to be the more practical form and M. Bleriot, who had experimented with both, at the end of the year was working with the bi-plane as the more effective form.

The first successful American hydroplane was that of Glenn H. Curtiss, which was shown at San Diego, Cal., on Jan. 26, 1911. In March, 1910, Fabre, with a French monoplane he had invented, had shown his ability to rise from the surface of the water. The Curtiss hydroplanes of 1911 was a bi-plane equipped with floats in place of the usual landing skids; the most successful type of machine was fitted with a single, long, narrow, scow-shaped pontoon, made of wood, 14 feet long, 2 feet wide, and a foot in depth, and capable of sustaining a weight of 1400 pounds. These hydroplanes were fitted with wheels also, so that they could alight on land as well as on water.

The flying machine has been demonstrated successfully and each year since the first successful flight has shown improvement. Aero clubs established throughout America and Europe have

fostered and encouraged aviation; large meets at various times for the competition of the various types of aeroplanes has produced by the year 1914 machines which for strength, durability of flight and speed can be and are used for practical purposes, a record of over ninety miles an hour has been made for long flights.

An aviation corps has been added as an arm of the service of the army and navy departments of the governments of Europe and also adopted by the United States in July, 1914.

SUBMARINE BOATS.

The continued experiments by the United States and foreign governments with the submarine for war purposes has brought about practical results.

Experiments by the United States Government in 1907 with the Octopus, a submarine boat of the Holland type, and a submarine built by the Lake Torpedo Boat Company, demonstrated their success. These boats were submerged in 30 feet of water, remaining 24 hours, and demonstrated their ability to remain two or three days longer; they could attain a speed of 8 knots on the surface, and 6.7 knots submerged. During the maneuvers of the Italian Navy in 1908 the practicability of the submarine was demonstrated by a flotilla, covering 1300 nautical miles. It was during these maneuvers that the submarine was successful in twice hitting a battleship with torpedoes in spite of extraordinary precautions by patrol boats and extra watches maintained on the battleship. The French and English Navy also during this year demonstrated the practicability of the submarine. On February 2, 1911, the French submarine *Mariotte* was launched. This was the largest in the world, having a displacement of 1100 tons and a length of 214 feet. The navies of the world are now using large flotillas of submarine boats.

The great conflict of the powers of Europe, begun in August, 1914, gave to the world a practical demonstration of the efficiency and serviceability of

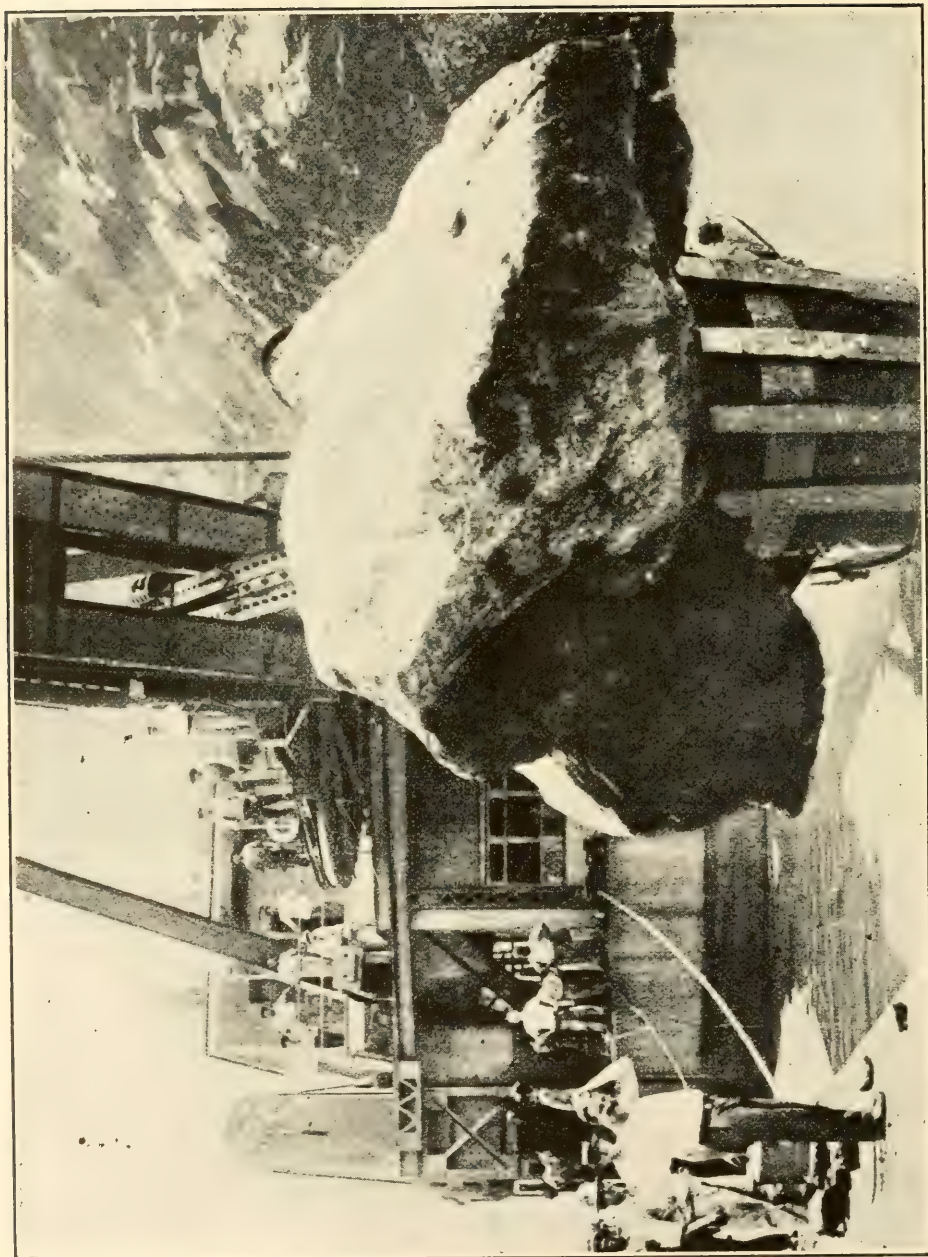
the submarine for offensive warfare. The German Navy by the use of the submarine was enabled to destroy many British vessels, both men-of-war and merchant ships, despite the efforts of the modern dreadnaughts and destroyers—the only efficient protection against the submarine being superior speed.

PANAMA CANAL.

We have previously considered (see page 314) the undertaking of the construction of the Panama Canal by the United States Government. With the determining of the lock type of construction for the canal, in April, 1907, the work of constructing the canal was put into the hands of the engineering officers of the army. Lieutenant-Colonel George W. Goethals, of the army engineering corps, was appointed a member of the Isthmian Canal Commission, and on April 1st became chairman and chief engineer.

The work of construction under his able administration was one of continued progress; the sanitary and health conditions which had been the greatest obstacles to the French engineers, were given first consideration by the Panama Commission. New laws of sanitation and hygiene were enacted and rigorously enforced, soon making the Canal Zone one of the healthiest spots on the earth, lessening one of the chief difficulties encountered by the engineers in the construction.

The work of excavating the big ditch and the construction of the massive locks and dams then at either end of the canal was but a question of engineering skill. Modern and improved machinery, especially designed and constructed for this work was used. An unforeseen and serious obstacle was encountered in the excavating of the canal. This occurred at the Culebra Cut; this was the large cut through the mountain at Culebra. This condition developed at Cucaracha, a small settlement near by. After the excavation for the canal at this point had been made, a landslide of several million cubic yards of earth and rock occurred at



A HUGE DREDGE AT PANAMA, SCOOPING A FORTY-TON ROCK OUT OF CULEBRA CUT
While the Channel is Open There Remains a Great Amount of Work in Clearing the Prism to Full Width, the Photograph
Indicating Something of the Nature of the Boulders Which Fall With Landslides Into the "Ditch."

this point several times. According to the official report, December 31, 1912, there remained but about 5,000,000 cubic yards of earth to be excavated, and on December 31, 1913, it was estimated there were about 6,000,000 cubic yards to be excavated, caused by the above conditions at Cucaracha. The completion of the construction of the canal, probably the greatest engineering feat in the history of the world, the massive locks and dams, that are marvels of engineering skill, is the admiration of the world.

The elevation of the summit of the canal is 85 feet above sea level. The summit will be reached by a flight of three locks located at Gatun on the Atlantic side and by one lock at Pedro Miguel, and a flight of two locks at Miraflores on the Pacific side. These locks are all made in duplicate; that is, they have two chambers side by side. The usable length of each lock is 1000 feet, and its width 110 feet. The summit level of the canal, which extends from Gatun to Pedro Miguel, about 31.5 miles is regulated between 82 and 87 feet above sea level by means of the spillway in the dam at Gatun. The Gatun Lake, which has an area of 164.23 square miles, is maintained by earth dams at Gatun and Pedro Miguel. Into this lake empty the Chagres River and other streams. Another small lake about two miles in area with a surface elevation of 55 feet has been formed between Pedro Miguel and Miraflores, the valley of the Rio Grande being closed by an earth dam on the west side and a concrete dam with a spillway on the east side at Miraflores. The approaches from deep water to the Gatun locks on the Atlantic side and from deep water to the locks at Miraflores on the Pacific side are sea level channels about seven and eight miles in length, respectively, and each 500 feet wide. From deep water in the Caribbean Sea to deep water in the Pacific Ocean the canal is about 50 miles in length. The distance from deep water to the shore line in Limon Bay on the Atlantic side is about $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles, and from the Pacific shore line to deep

water, about 4 miles. The total length of the canal, therefore, is approximately $41\frac{1}{2}$ miles. The channel from the beginning of the canal in the Caribbean Sea to the north end of the Gatun locks, about 7 miles, is 500 feet wide; from the south end of Gatun locks to a distance of $23\frac{1}{2}$ miles it is 1000 feet wide; for the next three miles, 800 feet wide; for the next half mile, 700 feet wide; for the next $4\frac{1}{4}$ miles, 500 feet wide, and from this point to Pedro Miguel lock, about 8 miles, is 300 feet wide. From the Pedro Miguel locks to Miraflores locks and from Miraflores locks to deep water in Panama Bay, it is 500 feet wide. The average width of the canal is 649 feet and its minimum width is 300 feet; it has a minimum depth of 41 feet.

The most spectacular feature of the canal, without doubt, is the Gatun dam, which holds in place the waters of Gatun Lake and the Chagres, and other rivers. This dam is about 800 feet long including the spillway, and is 2100 feet wide at its greatest width. The crest of the dam is at an elevation of 115 feet above sea level, or 30 feet above the normal level of Gatun Lake, and is 100 feet wide. Its width at the normal level of the lake, that is, 85 feet above sea level, is about 388 feet. The central part of the dam was filled by hydraulic process, protected by rock toes on both sides. The upper slope on the lake side is further protected by a 10-foot thickness of rock. The other parts were filled with available material from canal excavation.

The course of a vessel entering the canal from the Atlantic side is as follows: It passes from deep water in Limon Bay to Gatun locks, a distance of 6.9 miles, through a channel 500 feet wide. Passing into the locks which are .78 of a mile in length, the ship will be carried to an elevation of 85 feet above sea level in three lifts to the level of the water in Gatun Lake; thence for a distance of 16 miles the channel will be 1000 feet or more in width. This carries the vessel about 24 miles into the canal. Passing into the Pedro Miguel lock which is .37 of a mile in

length the vessel will be lowered to the level of Miraflores Lake, 55 feet above mean tide, to Miraflores locks, which is 41.72 miles from the Atlantic opening of the canal. Through the two Miraflores locks, which are .58 of a mile in length, the vessel will be lowered to tide level and proceed through a channel 500 feet wide to deep water in the Pacific, a distance of 50.5 miles from the beginning of the journey on the Atlantic side. It is estimated that the time required for the passage of a ship of medium size through the entire length of the canal will be from $9\frac{1}{2}$ to 10 hours and for larger vessels from $10\frac{1}{2}$ to 11 hours. Both the Atlantic and Pacific entrances of the canal are protected by strong fortifications.

The completion of the canal was well within the specified time. It was opened for use in August, 1914, the United States Congress the same month as a mark of appreciation for his work promoted Lieutenant-Colonel Goethals to the rank of Brigadier-General of Engineers.

The official opening of the canal was postponed until July, 1915, owing to an additional landslide at Culebra; this, however, has not closed the canal to ordinary commerce.

GEOLOGY.

In 1815, William Smith, a humble surveyor, published a "Map of the Strata of England and Wales." This event heralded the nativity of geology, and justly earned for its author the appellation of "the father of geology."

The chief incentive that led William Smith to undertake this herculean task was his previous discovery of the two primary laws which were to form the nucleus of the new science. The first is the law of stratification, which recognizes that the rocks exposed on the earth's surface are portions of layers, and that these layers must rest successively on each other in the order of their antiquity. The second is that each stratum may be identified by its contained organic remains, which include both animal and plant fossils.

The Geological Society of London was established in 1807 with the object of encouraging the collection of data and of recording observations, irrespective of theory. The laws of stratification as set forth in William Smith's map, became the chief subject of study for the English geologists, who had heretofore paid little or no attention either to fossils, or to the succession of rocks.

Charles Lysell, a young barrister, joined the society in 1819, shortly after taking his degree at Oxford. He was fired with the ambition to prove the gradual passage from past geological ages to the present one, and in order to do this it was necessary to travel beyond the narrow confines of Great Britain. Accordingly, he started out on a five years' sojourn, traveling through France, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, Spain and Sicily, and studying all the volcanoes, glaciers, large rivers and lofty mountains which those countries respectively contain.

In January, 1830, the first volume of his "Principles of Geology" appeared. In May, 1833, the second volume appeared and created no less a sensation than the first volume. All other doctrines died a lingering death, and the infant science became forever purged of all crude speculation.

Modern geology has divided the formation of the earth into four grand epochs—Archæan time, Paleozoic time, Mesozoic time and Cenozoic time. These epochs are divided into periods, with reference to the character of the fossil evidence of former organic life contained in their respective strata. Paleozoic time, which was probably three times longer than all later time, contains three ages: The Silurian or Age of Invertebrates; the Devonian, or Age of Fishes and the Carboniferous. Mesozoic time consists of but one age, the Age of Reptiles. Cenozoic time is divided into two ages, the Tertiary, or Age of Mammals, and the Quaternary, or Age of Man.

The origin of the Earth is accounted for in this way: That the elementary parts of creation were diffused in the

universe in the form of gas or vapor; the gases, having an affinity for each other, were attracted around a central point, thereby forming an extensive gas globe, which later became ignited; through the emission of heat, this igneous conglomeration gradually cooled off on its surface, which in time became hard and condensed. As the hot mass in the interior seethed and boiled, the crust was broken through from time to time, and empty spaces and great fissures were formed on the surface of the earth. The excrescences so formed were the primitive rocks, and are considered as the first stage in the formation of the earth's surface. The next stage is the period during which the water exercised its influence. The gases, still hanging about the earth in a thick, heavy mist, became gradually condensed as the cooling of the earth continued, and formed a great ocean that submerged the entire globe. The waters were boiling hot, and contained elements whose chemical action affected a part of the formation of the surface. Various deposits were made, and through the activity of the raging waters mountain chains formed themselves, and corresponding elevations and depressions took place. The cooling of the earth continued until the temperature sank so low that vegetation could form itself upon the earth. The climate was intensely hot, and spread itself equally over the entire surface from the poles to the equator. First plants and then animals of an incredible size came forth luxuriantly and in the fulness of life. Then a frightful revolution took place. The shape of the earth's surface was changed, and the splendid fauna and flora gradually diminished in proportions, and many of the species became totally extinct. At last the temperature sank so low that ice formed itself in various localities of the once tropical earth, which now emits no more heat than it absorbs from the sun. It would be impossible in this chapter to go into details of the number who contributed to the early knowledge of the science and their wonderful discoveries.

In 1831 Adam Sedgwick, Professor of Geology at Cambridge, attacked the geology of North Wales, a task which entailed three years of hard labor. In the meantime Roderick Impey Murchison, the close friend of Sedgwick, was hard at work in Central Wales, the results being finally embodied in his classic masterpiece, "The Silurian System," which appeared in 1838. From 1836 to 1839 the two friends worked in conjunction on the transition rocks of Devon and Cornwall, which resulted in the establishment of the Devonian System.

The American Society of Philadelphia had begun the publication of geological papers very early in the Nineteenth Century, and on January 10, 1809, William Maclure read at one of its meetings his memorable essay entitled "Observations on the Geology of the United States, Explanatory of a Geological Map."

Alone and at his own expense he made a geological survey of the entire United States, a work which earned for him the name he has received of the "father of American geology." The work was one of many years' duration. He crossed the Allegheny Mountains fifty times, and visited almost every state and territory in the Union. He traced the great groups of strata then designated as the transition, secondary and alluvial, from the Gulf of Mexico to the St. Lawrence. After an exhaustive exploration of our own country he went to Europe in order to recognize the corresponding formations of the other Continent, and in 1816 and 1817 he studied the formations of the Antilles.

In 1841, shortly after the appearance of another great work, entitled, "Elements of Geology," Lyell visited America, where he was received with great acclaim. The science had meanwhile grown to gigantic proportions since he had issued the final installment of his "Principles" in 1833.

The subordinate branches of geology were being studied with enthusiasm, and the importance of paleontology for chronological purposes had become

recognized. It was now possible for the geologist to trace the changes which the earth's crust had undergone, and to describe in minute detail the character of the plant and animal life peculiar to each of the great epochs into which time had been divided.

The solving of the mystery of the coal formation was attended by the most marvelous revelations. The fossiliferous strata of the subcarboniferous age, bore mute testimony that the greater part of North America, Europe and Great Britain had been submerged to a considerable depth under the sea, immediately preceding the coal-bearing period. Then there were gentle oscillations, and in time the Continents had uplifted themselves to the water's surface, and in this condition they had remained for a very great period of time.

The interior of the North American Continent from Eastern Pennsylvania to Central Kansas was one vast jungle of luxurious vegetation. The Green Mountains separated the New England and Nova Scotia areas from the marshes of Pennsylvania, and the Michigan coal area was an isolated marsh region. The plants and trees that flourished in these great marshes during the progress of the carboniferous age were of a luxuriance that has never been approached in any later period.

The fossil remains found in coal beds indicate that palms, phenogams, or flowering trees, and conifers, or plants of the pine-tribe, attained a colossal size. It is impossible for the imagination to conceive of the gorgeousness that then clothed Mother Earth. There must have been great numbers of immense floating islands, carrying groves, in the inland seas that the marsh regions enclosed, and the warm, humid atmosphere was no doubt heavy with the perfume of myriad flowers of gigantic proportions.

When the plants and trees died their remains fell to the ground of the forest, and soon became decomposed into a black, pasty mass, to which was added year by year the continual accumula-

tion of fresh carbonaceous matter. Thus this process of decay and disintegration went on among the shed leaves and trees until a bed of uniform thickness would be formed over a wide area. The eras of verdure during which these plant beds were in progress were alternated by periods of inundation by salt water from the oceans, that destroyed all terrestrial life. The accumulations of thousands and thousands of years of vegetable growth and decay became covered up with deposits of sediment.

Then the continental surface, or wide portions of it, would again slowly emerge and a new era of verdure appear. Thus the alternations continued until all the successive coal beds were formed. The ever-increasing pressure of the accumulated strata above them compressed the sheddings of a whole forest into a thickness in some cases of a few inches of coal, and the action of the internal heat of the earth caused them to part, to a varying degree, with some of their component gases. The coniferous trees, such as the living larches, pines, firs, etc., gave rise for the most part to the mineral oils, their sheddings having been subjected to a slow and continuous distillation, the oil so distilled accumulating in troughs in the strata, or finding its way to the surface in the shape of mineral oil springs. The nature and property of the coal to be formed depended upon the original substances of the living plant. One of the most remarkable things in connection with coal is the state of purity in which it is found. Owing to the fact that the forests must have abounded with streams and rivers, it is surprising that so little sediment found its way into the coal-beds. This puzzled the geologists until Sir Charles Lyell explained it. He noticed on one of his visits to America that the Mississippi River is highly charged with sediment where it flows through the cypress swamps, but that when it passes through the close undergrowth the sediment becomes precipitated, and the water filters through in an almost pure state. This accounts for the pres-

ence of thin "partings" of sandstone and shale which frequently occur in coal deposits.

The seas of the carboniferous age abounded in animal life, as is evidenced by the organic remains found in the alternating strata. Fishes and sharks of mammoth size inhabited the warm waters of the deep oceans and crinoids and corals, an infinite variety of articulates, crustaceans and trilobites infested the more shallow salt water areas. The forest jungles teemed with insect life—spiders, scorpions, centipedes, may-flies, cockroaches and crickets. There were also numerous varieties of land snails. In this age reptiles make their appearance for the first time. Their footprints as impressed on the carbonaceous beds of Pennsylvania indicate that they were large animals and that they had tails, tail marks being discernable on the mud flats over which the reptiles marched. In the Nova Scotia coal measures fossils have been found of the sea-saurian, a species of reptile that had paddles like a whale. Before the last period of the carboniferous age had passed away, there were still higher reptiles, those that lived on the land, but so far there is no indication that birds or mammals existed as early as that period. To account for the stupendous movements which must have happened in order to bring about the successive growths of forests one above the other, the geologists attributes them to the action of heat and to volcanic convulsions. At the close of the deposition of the carboniferous system of strata, there was unusual volcanic activity, as is evidenced by the frequent occurrence of what is known as faults.

More important even than the determination of the coal-making processes, was the promulgation of the Glacial theory. In 1835 De Charpentier, a Swiss geologist, advanced the idea that the erratics and boulder clays of his country had been deposited by glaciers at some remote period. This led all the geologists of Europe and America to investigate a question that had been puzzling scientists for a long time. It

seemed an impossibility for science to accept as a fact that nearly all of Europe and North America had been enveloped in a great ice sheet many miles in thickness, and at a comparatively recent period. That ages of tropical splendor should have been succeeded by such frightful desolation was beyond all conception, but as the investigation proceeded the fact was proved beyond the shadow of a doubt. A study of the topography of North America revealed the fact that an immense glacial deposit had embraced the whole Continent from Labrador and Newfoundland to the western borders of Iowa, and even farther west, and that it extended southward to the parallel of 40 degrees.

In Europe it extended down to 50 degrees, where the temperature corresponds to that of the parallel of 40 degrees in North America. The stupendous ice fields did not remain stationary, but in time began to transport themselves either in a southward, southeastward or southwestward direction. The highest mountains were no obstacle to their progress, and they moved over the great summits of the White Mountains and the Green Mountains as if they had been so many mole hills, and left as souvenirs of their visit boulders picked up 200 miles north. The direction of transportation was determined by tracing the rocks and boulders to those parts of the Continent where they were derived. Masses of native copper have been found in Indiana and Illinois that were transported from the Lake Superior region. From the Connecticut Valley boulders of red sandstone were carried to Long Island and giant masses of rock have been found in the Mississippi Valley, 1000 miles away from their native stratum. As reasoned by Agassiz, moving ice is the only known agent adequate for transportation on so vast a scale. The reason given for the uniformity of the direction of moving is the immutable law that a glacier moves in the direction of the slope of its upper surface. The snow being more abundant to the north during the gla-

cial era, and the temperature being lower than at the south, the accumulation naturally became greater in the north; as a result, the movement would be southward.

South America had its corresponding glacial era, transportation taking place in the direction of the equator. The cold of the era is attributed to the elevation and extension of Arctic lands and a corresponding increase in Arctic land-ice.

The logical confirmation of the glacial theory added one more period to the history of the earth.

In America the progress of discovery and research in Paleontology has been unparalleled. The two men who probably did more than any others to develop American paleontology were Professor Marsh, of Yale College and Professor Edward D. Cope, of Philadelphia, vertebrate paleontologist of the United States Geological Survey, both men of large means. From 1876 to 1885 Professor Cope had from three to five expeditions always in the field, the expenses of which he bore himself. When the fossil beds of Kansas, Colorado, Dakota and Wyoming, the greatest known, were discovered, Professor Cope and Professor Marsh assumed the mighty task of excavating, shipping, and classifying these remains of the Reptilian and Mammalian ages. Thirty-seven species of reptiles were found in Kansas alone, varying from ten to eighty feet in length, and representing six orders. Some of them were terrestrial in habit, many were flyers and others inhabited the salt ocean.

The extent of the sea westward was vast and geology has not laid down its boundary, but it has been conjectured to be a shore now submerged beneath the waters of the North Pacific Ocean. Out on the expanse of this ancient sea huge, snake-like forms rose above the surface, and stood erect, with tapering neck and narrow shaped head, or swayed about describing a circle of twenty feet radius above the water. This extraordinary neck was attached to a body of elephantine proportions,

the limbs were two pair of paddles, and a long serpent-like tail balanced the body behind. The total length of the *Elasmosaurus Platyurus*, Cope, for such it has been named, was fifty feet. In many places as many as eleven of these leviathan monsters would be discovered curled up together among the rocks. It was indeed an age of Reptiles. Flying saurians filled the air, and flesh-eating lizards, from twenty-four to thirty-five feet long, crawled over the earth, bearing burdensome tons of flesh on two bird-like feet. A flying saurian of the Mesozoic period, discovered by Marsh, spread eighteen feet between the tip of its wings, while the *Pterodactyl Umbrosus*, Cope, covered nearly twenty-five feet with its expanse.

The most important discovery made by Cope was the skeleton of the *Phenacodus Primævus*, considered the ancestor of all hoofed animals. In life it was four and a half feet long, not quite so large as a yearling calf, and when it skipped along it fluttered a pair of wings. This strange animal belonged to the first period of the Tertiary Age, during which time the American continent began to assume its present outlines. Only the borders of the Atlantic, the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific were covered by the sea. The Rocky Mountain region was above the sea. The Ohio and Mississippi were independent streams emptying into the gulf, and the Great Lakes began to assume their present form. Great forests extended from one end of the continent to the other, and giant sloths, mastodons, elephants, rhinoceroses and camels roamed the length and breadth of the land. Immediately after this age of abnormal life came the glacial period, which was in turn followed by the Age of Man.

EVOLUTION.

Primarily evolution is the act of enfolding or unrolling or, in the process of growth, development, as of a flower from a bud or of a bird from an egg.

But the term has grown to have

other and much larger meanings. It is applied to a system which undertakes to explain the existence of all things inorganic and organic, physical and psychical, including the arts and institutions.

In 1844, in England, was published anonymously, a volume entitled "Vestiges of the Natural History of Creation." The authorship was attributed to Robert Chambers. Adopting the Nebular Hypothesis, he passes in review the development of stars and solar systems, presenting a scholarly and skillful exposition of a whole philosophy of cosmic evolution. After outlining the geological history of the earth, he treats of the origin of life from inorganic matter and the development of the animal kingdom through many stages to man, adopting the Aristotelian idea of an internal impulse or tendency toward progression. With much care he shows the reasonableness of his view, arguing that it agrees much better with the known facts of nature in every department of her work than does the idea of a special creation of each distinct species of plant and animal.

In 1815 Treviranus called the attention of botanists to the embryo, and in 1823 Amici discovered the existence of pollen tubes. Brogniart and Brown followed in their footsteps, Brown tracing the tubes as far as the nucleus of the ovule. These discoveries laid the foundation of the present science of embryology of plants.

Sir William Hooker was the author of several works dealing with cryptogamic plants. This investigation was of peculiar importance, for among the various mosses, ferns and other plants described collectively as "cryptogamic" were numerous types showing intermediate structures bridging over gulfs of difference in organization which might well be thought impassable. Such discoveries were of much value for paving the way for biological evolution.

The man who did more than any other geologist to further the doctrine of evolution was Charles Lyell. In 1830 appeared the first volume of his

"Principles of Geology." The most ancient formations of the earth were proved to have been formed ages ago, in the same way and by means of the same physical agencies that are at work today.

The views of evolutionists were placed on a scientific basis by the patient labors of biologists, who applied themselves to the question of the mutability or immutability of species and the extent of variation, as shown by observation.

In 1858, two essays were read before the Linnæan Society, one by Charles Darwin, entitled, "On the Tendency of Species to form Varieties and On the Perpetuation of Species and Varieties by Means of Natural Selection," and the other by Alfred Russell Wallace, entitled, "On the Tendency of Varieties to Depart from the Original Type." Although these two papers setting forth the same discovery were given to the world at the same time, to Darwin belonged the prior claim. Through years he had been perfecting his history of Natural Selection. A voyage around the world on the "Beagle" with Captain Fitz-Roy's expedition (1831-1835) gave him remarkable opportunities for pursuing his investigations in natural history, the love for natural history being in his case innate.

He says: "During the voyage of the 'Beagle' I had been deeply impressed by discovering in the Pampean formation great fossil animals covered with armor like that on the existing armadillos; secondly, by the manner in which closely allied animals replace one another in proceeding southwards over the Continent; and thirdly, by the South American character of most of the productions of the Galapagos Archipelago, and more especially by the manner in which they differ slightly on each island of the group, none of the islands appearing to be very ancient in a geological sense. It was evident that such facts as these, as well as many others, could only be explained on the supposition that species gradually became modified; and the subject haunted

me. But it was equally evident that none of the evolutionary theories then current in the world could account for the innumerable cases in which organisms of every kind are beautifully adapted to their habits of life. . . . I had always been much struck by such adaptations, and until these could be explained, it seemed to me almost useless to endeavor to prove by indirect evidence that species have been modified."

This was the starting point. Soon after his return from the voyage Darwin opened, as he says, "my first notebook for facts in relation to the origin of the species, about which I have long reflected, and never ceased working for the next twenty years." By "printed inquiries, by conversations with skillful breeders and bardeners, and by extensive reading," he collected facts, seeming to know intuitively what was necessary to the solving of the problem. Stock breeders were more or less consciously, by selection, improving the domesticated animals and forming new races. Nature must by "selection" form new species, but how did such selection become possible?

"In October, 1838, that is, fifteen months after I had begun my systematic inquiry," says Darwin, "I happened to read for amusement 'Malthus on Population,' and being well prepared to appreciate the struggle for existence which everywhere goes on, from long continued observation of the habits of plants and animals, it at once struck me that under these circumstances favorable varieties would tend to be preserved and unfavorable ones destroyed. The result of this would be the formation of new species."

Although he now had the clue to the whole subject, not until 1842 did he allow himself to sketch his theory. He showed this sketch to Lyell, Hooker and others, but did not make known to the world his discoveries and conclusions.

From 1846 to 1854 he busied himself with preparing an extensive monograph on recent and fossil cirripedes, but in 1856 he began to write out on a

large scale a work dealing with the origin of the species. He was interrupted by the arrival of a paper from Alfred Russell Wallace who, far away in the Malay Archipelago, had solved independently the problem to which his friend Darwin was devoting so much attention.

In 1855 there had appeared an article by Wallace, "On the Law Which Has Regulated the Introduction of New Species." He had deduced the law or generalization that "Every species has come into existence coincident both in space and time with a pre-existing closely allied species," and showed that much was explained by this hypothesis, and that no important facts contradicted it. Three years later, while ill with intermittent fever, he fell to considering the problem of the origin of species. He had read "Malthus on Population" about ten years before, and, recollecting what this author said about the "positive checks" war, disease, accident, famine, etc., which have the effect of keeping savage populations nearly stationary, it flashed upon him that kindred checks must act upon animals, since they increase so rapidly that otherwise their numbers soon would be immense, instead of there being but little variations from year to year. Vaguely pondering on the matter in the intervals of the fever, there came, as if by inspiration, the idea of the survival of the fittest—that it must be the weak that perish, while the strongest and best survive. As soon as he was able, Wallace sketched out this theory and sent it by the next post to Darwin.

Darwin accompanied Wallace's essay with one of his own, and the joint communication was read before the society. Thus was the theory of the survival of the fittest, or by Natural Selection given to the world.

Before this there had been anticipations of the theory, but they had attracted little attention.

On November 24, 1859, Darwin's "Origin of the Species" appeared—"an epoch-making book," it is justly called. Its full title is "The Origin of Species

by Means of Natural Selection; or the Preservation of Favored Races in the Struggle for Life."

Lyell, Hooker, Huxley and Herbert Spencer's acceptance of the theory of Natural Selection did much to influence the public and advance popular opinion.

Darwin, Wallace, Spencer, Huxley and Tyndall are called the five great apostles of evolution. Their services to the establishment of the theory were performed in essentially different ways, although Wallace's work, in many respects, resembled that of Darwin.

The term evolution, as used today, has two significations, one the widely philosophical, embracing the whole cosmical process, and the other, that of the biologist, expressing the development of organic life. Herbert Spencer, to whom we owe the modern use of the word evolution, insists on a distinction, applying "evolution" to the all embracing philosophy and "development" to biological processes. Besides his use of "evolution" we are indebted to Spencer for the happy phrase "survival of the fittest" which Darwin adopted and sometimes used as an alternative for his own expression, "Natural Selection."

Briefly, the theory and practice of evolution have revealed in the various sciences. In astronomy, the oldest of the sciences, instead of the fixed systems of bygone ages, evolution presents the beautiful nebular hypothesis with its suns and worlds beginning, continuing, disintegrating in the infinitude of space exactly as they have been doing through æons of time.

Geology takes our planet and shows how, through millions of years, through gradual and natural agencies, sea and land, mountain and valley, strata and rocks, gravel and clay have been formed.

Biology finds that the law of growth is from low to high and from simple to complex in accordance with the general principle of evolution.

When classified by the taxonomist all the plant and animal life of the globe resembles a great genealogical tree branching out into infinite ramifi-

cations, and it is no insignificant confirmation of the theory of evolution to observe how some fresh light is thrown upon each ramification that has been developed, by each new fossil which is discovered.

It was not until after Darwin's theory of the Origin of Species and of Natural Selection had been accepted in its extreme conclusions that he published "The Descent of Man in Relation to Sex."

Anthropology shows man developing from a rude and untutored savage, covered with fur, with canine teeth, and bestial habits, living on raw meat and uncooked roots which he dug from the earth with his hands, hiding from his enemies in a cave or roosting in a hollow tree, with no language save inarticulate cries of rage, pain or passion, a creature compared to whom the bushmen of South Africa or Digger Indian of the West is a civilized human being.

It shows the gradual growth of customs, institutions, arts and sciences, and the history of races, nations and individuals all conforming to the laws of evolution.

And so in every science has evolution lent its aid.

The indefatigable collection of facts, with the infinite capacity for taking pains, the collection of data, from which might be deduced logically and connectedly the laws and generalizations which he sought, we have seen this in the patience and unwearying labor with which through years he verified his conclusions in biological evolution, to Charles Darwin is due the establishment of the theory of evolution, generally conceded to be the most remarkable scientific achievement of the nineteenth century.

ELECTRICITY.

In 1747 Benjamin Franklin first announced his theory of a single fluid, terming vitreous electricity positive, and resinous negative. In 1748 at a picnic he practically demonstrated electricity by killing a turkey, roasting it

by an electric jack, before a fire kindled by means of a Leyden jar.

In June, 1752, he demonstrated the identity of the electric spark and lightning by drawing electricity from a cloud by a kite.

In 1800 Alexander Volta, Professor of Physics in the University of Pavia, gave to the world his pile. This was a series of bits of copper and zinc arranged alternately one above the other, but each bit of metal separated from its neighbor by a piece of cloth wet with dilute acid. The more bits of metal there were the stronger the current which could be produced. This device was based on Galvani's discovery, a professor of anatomy in the University of Bologna. While experimenting with a dead frog which he had hung on a copper hook he noticed the contact with an iron rod caused a twitching of the dead frog's legs. In later experiments Professor Galvani produced the twitching by touching the nerve of the limb with a rod of zinc and the muscle with a rod of copper in contact with the zinc. He thought he had discovered the principles of life.

Since the day of Volta the voltaic cell and Galvanic battery have been greatly improved, yet they remain essentially the same in principle, and therefore science gives to Volta the credit of having made the greatest force in nature serviceable to man.

In 1819 H. C. Oersted, of Copenhagen, found that if a magnet be moved near a piece of metal, preferably a coil of copper wire, a current of electricity is produced in the coil. Every electro-magnet illustrates this discovery of Oersted's. Until you bring it very near or make it touch a steel magnet it is simply a piece of soft iron; then for an instant, as the core becomes magnetic you excite electricity in the wire surrounding the electro-magnet. You pay for that electric pulse in the forcible pull required to separate the electro-magnet and the steel magnet from each other. Replace this effort of the hand by the might of an engine with corresponding increase in the size and improvement in the

form of the coil and your little experiment merges into building and driving a dynamo. Thus Oersted and his successors have made possible the dynamo.

Oersted's discovery owes much to the subsequent discoveries of Ampere and Faraday. Ampere exhibited the action of the voltaic pile on the magnetic needle and that of the terrestrial magnetism on the voltaic current. He also arranged the conducting wire in the form of a helix or spiral, invented a galvanometer and imitated the magnet by a spiral galvanic wire, in 1820. Two years later Faraday, who was a shop-assistant to Sir Humphrey Davy, explained electro-magnetic rotation. Working upon the discoveries of Oersted and Ampere he announced his discovery of induction which was announced in a series of papers read before the Royal Society of London. Faraday not only proved Oersted's investigation, but discovered magneto-electricity, its converse, by producing an electric spark by suddenly separating a coiled keeper from a permanent magnet and found an electric current in a copper disk rotated between the poles of a magnet. His brilliant experiments proved that the current developed by induction is the same in all its qualities with that of other currents and he demonstrated Franklin's theory that all electricity is the same; that there is but one kind.

Upon induction and its laws for the explanation of the principles of which we are indebted chiefly to Faraday, depend the simplest as well as the most complicated of our modern electrical appliances for a reason of action. Briefly explained, induction is the action which electrified bodies exert at a distance in a natural state. Faraday's and Ampere's spiral were the forerunners of the electric coil, which consists of two separate coils of insulated wire wound around a soft-iron core.

We have not the space here to give the developments of electricity step by step, the telephone, telegraph and electric light are sketched in other chapters, and the applications of electricity are

sketched under the various industries to which they apply.

The germ of the electric motor is found in the invention of Joseph Henry, an American. Many improvements were made by him in the magnet.

In 1831 he constructed an electric motor, the first of the kind the world had ever known. In Henry's machine the current was actuated by a voltaic battery, but in the middle of the century Moritz H. Jacobi, a German, found that a dynamo-electric machine can also work as a motor and that by coupling two dynamos in one circuit—one as a generator and the other as a motor—it was possible to transmit mechanical power by electricity.

The magneto-electric machine of Gramme, made in 1870, was the first to practically transmit power in the fashion in which it is used in nearly every town and civilized country today.

The first application of the electric motor was about 1839, when Jacobi sailed an electric boat on the Neva with an electro-magnet engine of one horsepower.

It is the dynamo, however, that has made possible the use of electricity for power. Cheapness is the factor that has led to this result.

The first use of the word "dynamo" was made by Siemens, who called his machine "dynamo-electric"—the word dynamo being Greek for to be able—and this expression contracted to the single word dynamo has since been universally employed.

Originally the dynamo was a horse-shoe magnet set on a shaft and made to revolve in front of two cores of soft iron wound round with wire and having their ends opposite the legs of a magnet.

Then the magnet no longer was made to turn on a shaft, but on the lighter iron cores, and so today the huge field magnets of a modern dynamo are made to turn around a stationary armature, but the armature is whirled around within the legs of the magnet with great rapidity. The number of magnets was increased, as was the number of wire-wound cores, while the magnets

were gradually made compound, laminated. Siemens of Berlin, in 1857, wound the iron-core lengthwise, with wire instead of round and round a spool, and then the shaft of the armature was placed cross-wise between the legs of the magnet, as in the modern dynamo. One of the ends of the wire used in this winding was fastened to the axle of the armature and the other to a ring insulated from the shaft, but turning with it. The current was carried away by wires attached to two springs, one bearing on the shaft and another on the ring. Siemens also originated the mechanical idea of hollowing out the legs of the magnet on the inside for the armature to turn in, close to the magnet, making it almost fit.

Alternating currents resulting because of induction, the commutator was then devised to cause the currents to flow in the same direction. The springs known as brushes were so arranged that their alternate action made the current carried away always direct. A machine in which a ring armature is used, doing away with the commutator, was then constructed by Pacinotti, of Florence, and it is extensively used for certain purposes.

The huge field magnet, which is really not a magnet at all, was made possible by the improvements of Wilde, of England, in 1866. He caused the current, after it had been rectified by the commutator, to return again to the coils of wire round the legs of his field magnets. This induced in them a new supply of magnetism and intensified the current from the armature. Step by step minor improvements followed, each inventor contributing his part to the perfection of the magnificent machine as we have it today. The machines are of various types and seem capable of but little further improvement, as there are dynamos in use today which give 92 per cent. of a possible 100 per cent. of their engine power. The engine which turns the dynamo, however, still wastes at least 90 per cent. of the furnace heat.

The motor is the twin of the dynamo. If a dynamo instead of being driven by

an engine and used to give a current, has a current from a separate source (as from another dynamo or from a battery) passed through it, its armature will revolve and the dynamo become a kind of electric engine capable of driving machinery. A dynamo when used in this manner is called an electro-motor or simply a motor. The difference between a motor and a dynamo has been well summarized in these words: It is the work of the dynamo to convert mechanical energy into the form of electrical energy; the motor in turn changes this electrical energy back again into mechanical energy.

No motor intervenes where the electric light is produced by the dynamo current. Some restriction upon the current converts the current into heat and light. The motor is always the intermediate machine when mechanical movements are to be produced by the current from the dynamo. The armature of the dynamo, rotated by steam or water power, produces electrical energy in the form of a mighty current, and this is transmitted over a wire. This current, reaching the motor, rotates the armature.

A great step was made in the increased utilization of electricity when the problem of transmission of power over long distances was solved. Now a current cannot only be distributed through a workshop with the utmost convenience and economy, but it can be sent to a workshop from an engine or waterwheel many miles away.

The first experiments in this direction were made by Marcel Deprez at Creil in 1876 to 1886, and Deprez succeeded in transmitting mechanical power thirty-five miles for industrial purposes in the latter year. Many inventors busied themselves along these lines, and on February 3, 1892, Nikola Tesla, at the Royal Institution, exhibited his alternate-current motor, by which currents are transformed, by continually reversing the direction, into mechanical power. By means of Tesla's apparatus the force of 77 horsepower was transmitted from the rapids

of the Neckar to Frankfort-on-Maine, 110 miles, September, 1891.

Possibilities of the utilization of waterfalls for the transmission of power electrically immediately attracted attention to the world's greatest waterfall, that of Niagara. At Niagara River and Falls, about 18,000,000 cubic feet of water flow per minute through a descent of more than 300 feet, including both falls and rapids; this represents something like 7,000,000 horsepower, and today the power of Niagara is turning machinery and running street cars in Buffalo, twenty-six miles away. Power from the falls has been used to operate machinery in New York, being thus employed at the electrical exposition. Long-distance transmission of power is not confined to Niagara Falls.

Utilization of water-power on a small scale, as well as by taking advantage of the greater waterfalls, has made possible a vast increase in the use of electric power. Electricity is now being developed from water-power as cheaply as steam-power can be made from coal. Sometimes it is cheaper, and wherever the cost is about the same, the cleanliness of electricity and the absence of pulleys make it favored. There is also the advantage that the difference in first cost is in favor of electricity when the power is rented. In large cities and many towns electricity is therefore coming in greater use for running machinery. It is used to a great extent for traveling cranes, derricks and other heavy machinery. Most of the big newspapers and other establishments, where there is no necessity for a foundry, are gradually adopting electricity. Another application that is quite common is to electric elevators. It is said that in New York and Chicago as many people travel perpendicularly as travel horizontally; and however this may be, the elevator industry is very large, and electricity has become the favorite method of propelling elevators—so general, in fact, that it seems almost incredible that the very first use of electric current for

power purposes was upon a freight elevator in New York in 1882.

The storage battery—miscalled, for it is really not an attempt to store electricity. It is really a secondary battery, the principle of its action being the decomposing of combined chemicals, by the action of a current applied from a stationary generator or dynamo, and these currents again unite as soon as they are allowed to do so by the completing of a circuit, and in recombining give off nearly as much electricity as was first used in separating them. Leaden plates, one cleaned and the other fouled by the action of a current, are the basis of the secondary battery. The expense and inconvenience of the arrangement has prevented its wide utilization, although it is used on some street railway lines and as a means of propulsion for motor carriages.

Electricity has been put to a number of minor uses. The phonograph, which is startling, but has not as yet been made of great commercial use, is one of the most interesting of electrical devices, as it stores and reproduces speech. Edison announced his invention in 1878, and the instrument succeeded so well that a member of the Academy of Sciences at Paris declared that it was a mere ventriloquist's trick. The phonograph, as perfected, is simple in its construction. Every vibration of the diaphragm causes a stylus at its end to make a corresponding mark on a cylinder which is set in operation. After the record is made the sounds are reproduced as the stylus again travels over the indentations. Aside from its use as an amusement, the phonograph is chiefly useful as a means of dictation, the words being repeated in the ear of a typewriter operator at whatever speed may be desired. It is also used to teach pronunciation, and will be invaluable in preserving exact records of the speech of the present and the voices of great singers for future ages.

The induction balance has been used as a sonometer, or machine for meas-

uring hearing, and the bottom of the sea has been explored by sonometers for sunken treasure. Leaks in water-pipes have been localized by the microphone, and the story is told of a Russian woman who was saved from premature burial because the microphone made audible her feeble heart-beats. The peculiar sensitiveness of electricity makes it a means of surpassing delicacy in measuring heat, light or chemical action. By the bolometer, invented by Prof. S. P. Langley, a change of temperature of one-millionth of a degree Fahrenheit has been recorded, a refinement scarcely approached by any other means of scientific detection.

The automatic devices are endless. It is used for every purpose. Dr. Peter Cooper Hewitt of New York invented the Mercury Vapor Lamp.

Unlike the ordinary incandescent bulb, the Hewitt mercury-vapor lamp is devoid of filament. The ends of the electric circuit cease abruptly at the extremities of the glass cylinder—there is no visible body to grow luminously hot by the passage of an exciting current. Down at one end of the lamp is a globular chamber holding a quantity of mercury, and the tube is inclined or slanting. No matter how much current is turned into the attached wires, the "juice" can't jump the vacuum gap until the lamp is tilted so that the mercury touches the upper terminal and provides a path for the flow of the electricity. But that would not make a light. However, when the lower end of the lamp is allowed to fall back to its normal position, the retreating mercury draws away from the upper terminal, and that break in the circuit causes a spark. The spark is hot enough to vaporize some of the mercury and to fill the vacuum space with tiny, floating metallic particles. These offer a route for the electrons cast off by the upper terminal which seek to reach the other electrode at the bottom of the tube. In their race for their goal, along this tenuous road, the electrons collide with the tiny globules of

the mercurial vapor, and these multiple collisions fill the tube with incandescence.

After this discovery, Dr. Hewitt perfected his lamp and the busy world soon found many services to which its peculiar glow lent itself admirably. Besides, it was soon discovered that this sort of lamp was unusually efficient or economical in its consumption of current. This achievement might have satisfied most inventors, but Dr. Hewitt is a man of independent wealth, and he wanted to learn more about the inner workings of the mercury-vapor arc aside from its capacity to provide illumination. During some of his experiments, when feeding alternating current to this form of arc, he was astonished to find that the current issuing from the tube was not alternating but continuous or direct, and, accordingly, of a different nature in its electrical properties. By passing through the mercury-vapor arc the pulsating flux was transformed into a uniform flow. This was directly opposite to the thing that happened when a filament incandescent lamp was placed in the line of an alternating current system. Being a scientist and a natural-born investigator, Dr. Hewitt asked himself why this should be so.

It was in studying the mysteries of his lamp, under this incentive, that the complex nature of the phenomena inside of the active tube was revealed to him. As he has expressed it himself, "I found a nest of phenomena at the upper electrode and another group at the lower terminal, still more of them in the middle of the arc or glow, while the ends of the arc had each of them its own characteristic bunch of phenomena. All in all, there are between thirty and forty of these doings within the limits of the vacuum space. Further study showed me how some of these could be controlled, and then my next efforts were bent upon putting these actions to services other than that of producing a glow for illumination."

One of the remarkable things about the mercury-vapor arc is its combined ruggedness and sensitiveness when sub-

jected to greatly different ranges of electrical pressure or voltage. Dr. Hewitt declares that the electrical flood of a discharge of lightning can be withstood by his arc and yet the same apparatus, an instant later, will be exquisitely alive to the faintest Hertzian wave reaching the connecting antennæ! True, these differing electrical disturbances changed the visible manifestations of the arc, but they did no harm to the tube. His keen mind at once questioned, why should this gift of the mercury-vapor apparatus not be put to some helpful service? When this thought occurred to Dr. Hewitt he was very much alive to the difficulties being encountered in perfecting wireless telegraphy.

Wireless telegraph bears the same relation to wireless telephony that ordinary telegraphing bears to telephoning over a material circuit. In telegraphy the problem is to send long and short signals that represent dashes and dots of an accepted code. Telephony, on the other hand, calls for the transmission of a wide variety of impulses, which, in turn, are translated or transformed by suitable instruments into audible speech. In wireless telegraphy long and short waves or intermittent wave-trains are propagated through the ether, and these are picked up by distant wires and carried to delicate apparatus which repeat them in the form of short sounds and long sounds. In one case, the period of length of the wave-train suffices, while in the other system continuous waves are sent out, but, by a single shortening or lengthening of these, breaks are made in the series which reaches a receiver tuned to a certain wave-length, and, in this fashion, the dot-and-dash signals are transmitted.

Experiments here and abroad have clearly established the fact that continuous oscillations, varied in length to cause gaps in the record at the receiving end, call for less power in the generator and can be sent further and read better than occasional wave-trains produced by a sparking apparatus. The continuous waves are provoked by an

arc, and the late Waldemar Poulsen, a Dane, invented this system. The luminous arc jumps a gap terminating in carbons, but these, unfortunately, burn out, interrupt the service, and are expensive. On the other hand, the sparking apparatus calls for a rotor of extremely fine fabrication which, in the biggest installations, weighs as much as five tons. This rotor can create surging impulses of an intermittent character—either long or short—strong enough to span the Atlantic, but this costly mechanism is not sturdy, and a few weeks of hard service is enough to incapacitate it. Such, in brief, is the state of the art commercially, but out of Dr. Hewitt's laboratory is now ready to issue a revolutionary installation.

The wizard of the tower has a mercury-vapor arc oscillator, weighing not more than two pounds, which is capable of doing efficiently and cheaply the work now falling to the elaborate five-ton rotor or the Poulsen-arc generator. Dr. Hewitt believes in the continuous-wave system, and such, in fact, is the way his oscillator works. But, besides being able to send out dot-and-dash signals, his apparatus will transmit waves of the changing frequencies called for in the telephonic reproduction of speech.

In his laboratory he has working today his receiving arc, and it is connected with the wires leading from the wireless antennæ suspended from the Madison Square Garden Tower. Through a telephone receiver, in the circuit, one can hear the long and short sounds of the thousands of Hertzian-wave signals flooding the atmosphere of Manhattan, but, by means of an ingenious separator, conflicting impulses are shut out, and only those are heard from a single station at any one time. By shifting the contacts of this apparatus, the messages can be caught from another source, and it is by the tone or pitch of these that Dr. Hewitt is able to identify their origin. The mercury-vapor arc is otherwise valuable, because it is able to strengthen these sounds and, in many cases, to make it possible to hear them more distinctly in

the laboratory than in the room of the operator for whom they are intended.

Now let us see how he would use his wireless in telephoning over long distances. When the sender speaks into the telephone transmitter of the Hewitt system, the variations of the local circuit thus induced will affect the oscillations or waves being continuously dispatched by means of the transmitting mercury-vapor arc. Thus, upon a bed, as it were, of unceasing waves, delicate inflections or modifications will be laid by the vibrations of the telephone, and these, unchanged, will be carried on these far-reaching undulations through the ether to the receiving station way, way off. There they will be picked up by the antennæ of the towering aërials and led down to the sensitively responsive receiving mercury-vapor arc, where they will be invigorated and, in their turn, made to influence the local electrical flow of the listener's telephone. Just in this way, the vocal message sent from a thousand or more miles away will be reproduced audibly without the medium of connecting wires!

Dr. Hewitt declares that in the various tests—we might better say the thousands of trials—made with the receiver now in his New York laboratory, he has found no difficulty in picking up wave-lengths of all sorts, and he knows that he can detect frequencies that are much more rapid or shorter than the Hertzian undulations now employed by wireless telegraphy, which reach a maximum of something like 10,000 cycles in a second of time. By going above the range of wireless telegraphy, Dr. Hewitt can convert inaudible wave-lengths into sound, and thus make it possible to establish vocal communication through the medium of Hertzian impulses that will be beyond the interference of commercial wireless telegraphy.

Just in this way, the man that has given us the mercury-vapor lamp will insure secrecy in wireless telephony, because the receiving apparatus and the dispatching oscillator can be tuned to one another to the utmost nicety—and

this adjustment of pitch will isolate the conversation just as effectively as the shifting of his detector key now does in the case of the dot-and-dash sounds of existing wireless telegraph stations. More than this, Dr. Hewitt purposes employing an associate apparatus, a modification of Poulsen's telephograph, and, by this duel arrangement, to make it possible to record both telegraph and telephone messages, so that they can be reproduced or read at leisure at any time after their reception. Poulsen showed the world how it was feasible to record a vocal message upon a steel wire by charging that wire as it moved along with positive and negative magnetism of differing degrees of strength, and when this wire was fed through another instrument it reproduced accurately the words of the original speaker.

It is said that men are still ignorant of what electricity is. As a matter of fact the principles of electric action are known. We know that electricity will induce magnetic force and magnetic force will generate electricity; that electricity will induce chemical action and chemical action will induce electricity; that electricity will develop light and light will generate electricity. We also know the conditions under which these actions take place, and the relations between the cause and effect. So physicists have found out what electricity is, just as they have found out what sound, heat and light are. They are alike in some respects. They are all vibrations of that subtle and all pervading medium which pervades the universe and is known as the ether.

PHYSICS.

The basis of the law of conservation of energy is due to the experiments of James Prescott Joule. In 1840 he demonstrated experimentally the law that the "heating effect of an electrical current is directly proportional to the square of the current flowing." The climax of his experiments was reached in a paper read before the Royal Society, in which he showed that "an

amount of energy equal to 772 foot-pounds will, if communicated to one pound of water, raise its temperature one degree Fahrenheit." Thus he showed that there is definite relation between heat and energy and that a given amount of energy can be converted into a definite quantity of heat.

The law of the conservation of energy teaches that the exact amount of energy which a force possesses is conserved (or preserved), even though, losing its original character, it appears in other forms. Power may be transformed into velocity, so that what is lost in the latter is gained in the former, and vice versa; or it may be transformed on the same principle into heat. No force is therefore destroyed, but only is transformed into some equivalent, capable of doing exactly the same amount of work which it, unchanged, could have done. The extent of this principle and its force and application, embracing as it does the whole phenomena of the universe, is so vast that it is possible only to give the reader a general notion of it. The practical importance of the discovery has been summarized by Sir John Herschel in these words: "First, in showing us how to avoid attempting impossibilities. Second, in securing us from important mistakes in attempting what is in itself possible, by means either inadequate or actually opposed to the end in view. Third, in enabling us to accomplish our ends in the easiest, shortest, most economical and effectual manner. Fourth, in inducing us to attempt and enabling us to accomplish, objects which but for such knowledge we should never have thought of undertaking."

We are taught then by the principle of the conservation of energy that force, like matter, is indestructible. The first thought of the reader might be that this is incredible, and he might instance the steam engine as a creation of force, while the lever and the pulley might be cited as other instances. But it is hoped that the principle will be so explained that the reader will understand the real nature of these contrivances.

Anyone nowadays understands that the various forces of nature, such as mechanical action, heat, light, electricity, magnetism and chemical action, are so related that any one of them can be made to produce all the rest. By Joule's investigation this teaching was extended until we ascertained—as has been verified by repeated experiments—that a given amount of force of one kind would produce another kind, as that 772 units of work (foot-pounds) will raise the temperature of water from 32 to 33 Fahrenheit. In the steam-engine there is an inverse action. Here heat produces force work. Careful investigation and experiment has shown that after reckoning the amount of heat generated and subtracting that which is lost by conduction, radiation and condensation (an enormous misapplication of energy) it is always found that for every 772 foot-pounds, a unit of heat has disappeared from the cylinder. Not only has this relation between heat and energy been proved definite, but it is known that equally quantitative relations exist among all other forms of force. So we can express a definite chemical or electrical action in terms of work. We also know that quantitative relations exist between all physical forces, although the exact equivalents have not been found in some cases, such as light and vital action.

The amount of energy in the universe is constant. Some of it may lie dormant, and may be what is known as potential energy. An example of this may be had by a man drawing a cross bow. If he pulls the string back six inches and to do it requires a pull of 50 pounds, he exerts $50 \times \frac{1}{2} = 25$ units of work. As long as the string is kept in the notch from which the trigger may release it, the energy is potential, just as when a ball is dropped to the ground the energy remains potential. But when the trigger is released and an arrow is shot upwards, the experiment proves that it will rise just as many feet as is the equivalent of the original energy exerted. If the arrow weighs $\frac{1}{4}$ pound, it will rise ex-

actly 100 feet, making the work done by it exactly that which has been done upon it.* While it may have taken a strong man to bend the bow, it needs only the touch of a child to discharge it. So when the gunpowder explodes, the real source of energy is not the man, but the separation of carbon atoms from oxygen atoms, and that has been done by the sun's rays. The energy was potential before released, but it was none the less there.

The practical value of this knowledge is enormous. Thus we know by the principle of conservation of energy that perpetual motion is impossible, and that no man can create force any more than he can create matter. And we also know exactly the amount of energy which we should obtain from the combustion of a ton of coal, and knowing this can direct our experiments to reducing the exertion of that energy in any other direction than the producing of the kind of work we require from it.

The great principle also teaches us that all the forces of nature are interdependent, and all have their origin in the sun. There is no origination on the earth. We learn that the heat of the sun is the cause of all of the energy around us—winds, thunderstorms, water-power, waves, rains and rivers. The inequality of the sun's heat on earth causes the winds; evaporation causes water-power of all kinds—and that evaporation also produces rivers by transferring water from the ocean to the mountains. The heat of the sun supplies the power that enables plants to build up their tissues, and this stored energy is released by the muscular action of the animals who have fed on the plants.

To James Clerk Maxwell, who with Helmholtz had been chiefly responsible for the development of and proof of Joule's principle, the world is indebted for the kinetic or molecular theory of gases. He read a paper in 1860 at the British Association, in which he de-

*It must be remembered that in this, as in all physical experiments, the conditions must be perfect. Thus there must be no aid or hindrance by friction, the force of the wind, etc.

clared that gases consist of myriads of particles jostling against each other. The theory is consistent with the experimental laws of gases, and gives an insight into their behavior when subjected to various physical conditions. The molecules found by a study in gas are wonderfully minute, there being some hundreds of trillions in a cubic inch at an ordinary temperature, and these collide with each other at something like eight thousand millions times a second. Experiment since has shown that any gas may be liquefied or solidified, and in fact it is now possible to draw no sharp line between the various forms of matter. All may be converted into gases, liquids or solids. They are all like ice, which, though solid, may be converted into water and then from water into its component gases.

Much progress has been made in regard to determining the nature and property of light. The corpuscular theory held at the beginning of the nineteenth century has given way to the undulatory theory, which is that light is caused by vibrations of the luminiferous ether. It is not yet explained, however, what it is that is moved. The velocity of light has been determined by the experiments of Fizeau in 1849 and Foucault in 1850—two ingenious Frenchmen who found that light travels at the rate of from 186,000 to 187,000 miles a second. It has also been found that color is due to light. With the undulatory theory of light as a basis, it has been discovered that color is to light what pitch is to sound. The agent which produces in our visual organs the impression of color is therefore not in the objects, but in the light which falls upon them. The redness is not in the rose itself, but because the light which falls upon it contains some rays in which there are movements that occur just the number of times per second that gives us the impression we call redness. In short, the color comes not from the flower, but from the light. If the reader choose to prove this he may do so by lighting a spirit lamp, on the wick of which a piece of salt as large

as a pea is placed. Then let him exclude all other light from the room, and if he brings the red rose to the light he will see that it appears to be of an ashy hue, with all the redness missing. Science declares that the fresh green tints of early summer, and the golden glow of autumn, the brilliant colors of flowers, insects and of birds, the soft blue of the cloudless sky, the rosy hues of sunset and of dawn, the chromatic splendor of gems—are all due to light and to light alone. The shades are caused by the number of vibrations. If the vibrations of ether are at the rate of 458 trillions in a second, we receive the impression we call red, if at the rate of 727 trillions, violet, and so on with the other colors of the spectrum. These discoveries have been made by the aid of spectrum analysis—a most important physical achievement.

The physicist has been aided by many delicate machines of his own contrivance, which are in themselves triumphs of scientific and inventive genius. One such machine is an instrument perfected by Professor Dayton C. Miller, of Cleveland, in January, 1899, which will measure down to the twentieth-millionth part of an inch, and is used for making almost infinitesimal measurements of light waves.

Interesting applications of physical principles are to be found in the work which water and air have been made to do for us. The value of water power and of windmills was known in the remote antiquities of time, but by the compression of these two forces many things may be done which it would be difficult to accomplish otherwise. The hydraulic press, which depends on the principle that a pressure exerted on any part of the surface of a liquid is transmitted undiminished to all parts of the mass and in all directions, was invented by Braham in 1785, but many improvements have been made since. The force which may be brought to bear by means of this machine upon substances submitted to its action is limited only by the power of the material of the press to resist the strains put upon them. In the press a piston passes

water-tight through a strong metal cylinder. A tube leads from the cylinder to a force pump, and thus water is driven from the tank into the cavity of the metal cylinder, so as to force the cylinder upwards. The bale of cotton, or whatever other article it may be necessary to compress, is placed on a table supported by the piston, and the rising of the tables impresses the object against an entablature supported by pillars at the top. The hydraulic press, with modifications, is used for pressing oils from seeds, where a powerful, steady and easily regulated pressure is required as well as for pressing more bulky objects. By use of hydraulic pressure cannons and steam-boilers are tested, the water being forced into them by means of a force-pump.

William Armstrong patented his hydraulic crane in 1846, and since then it has come into extensive use, it being possible to employ a pressure greatly in excess of that which may be used in the case of steam. These cranes are so arranged that one man can raise, lower or swing around the heaviest load with a readiness or apparent ease marvelous to behold. One of the simplest forms of the hydraulic crane consists of two upright cheeks between which is fixed a hydraulic ram, occupying the lower half of the upright frame. The upper end of this ram carries a pulley, and a similar pulley is affixed to the upright frame. A chain is secured to the bracket on the upright frame. This chain passes up over one pulley and down and under the other pulley, and then over the pulley on the end of the jib of the crane. The rising and falling of the ram causes the chain to ascend and descend with its load. An ingenious device by Armstrong is the accumulator, which acts as a reservoir of power, which is being always stored into that vessel. The principle of the hydraulic crane is largely used by elevators, though it is largely supplanted by electricity.

Water engines are sometimes used. They are operated where water under a high pressure may be obtained, and

are worked on the same principle as the steam engine.

Compressed air is a force which has come into general use, and is regarded by some people as likely to become a rival to electricity. At present, however, they work side by side in the industrial field; each can do many things which the other does, but each has its own field of labor. On the other hand, compressed air is a rougher workman. It can be set to work in swamps and ditches and quarries digging mud, battering rocks to pieces, and loading or unloading cars. In America the first practical use to which it was put was on the Hoosac tunnel. These were the rock drills that have revolutionized the modern work of quarrying.

One of the most useful applications of compressed air is the air-brake, invented in 1869 by George Westinghouse. The present quick-acting air-brake, known as the Westinghouse, was not constructed until 1887. Compressed air also finds its use in the railway service in the operation of switches and semaphore signals; it is used to signal the engineer, ring the bell, to sand the track, dust the cushions, clean the hangings, raise water, and it performs many other rougher duties in the railway machine shops. There are crevices which the feather-duster would not reach in cleaning cushions, but a jet of air one-tenth of an inch in diameter will reach every place and, projected with force, will carry away every particle of dust.

The principle on which these tools is operated is this: The air is compressed, and on its release it rushes forth with great force. The work is really done by the steam-engine or another prime mover in compressing the air. In the construction of the Mount Ceniz tunnel the air was first compressed by water power and then carried through pipes into the heart of the tunnel, to work the rock-boring machines.

The same principle as that used in the rock-boring machine is employed in the little tool with which the dentist compacts the films of gold-leaf in a

tooth. In these machines the part which holds the actual tool is not operated directly by the air, but just above it lies a plunger, which is vibrated back and forward by the air, and this strikes blows on the head of the working tool when the tool is pressed back against it. Tools moved in this manner are used to set up the rivets which hold together steam boilers, the iron-work of bridges and sky-scrappers, and in many shops hand-riveting has been abolished by their use.

The tools are of varying size, and a great shear will cut off the end of the big steel beams that are used in ships and buildings as easily as so much tin-foil. Punches and jacks worked in this way will do all sorts of things, from forming the top of a tin can to putting car wheels on their axles.

Compressed air operates hoists and traveling cranes in the foundries. One man in a foundry can lift heavy loads and place them on a wagon in less time than could be done by many men employing less modern methods.

In 1892 Frank D. Millet devised a painting machine. This machine was capable of covering 31,500 square feet of surface a day. The machine is like one of the atomizers that women use, but a continuous supply of compressed air is used to squirt the stream of paint. The artist's air-brush is an application of the same principle on a smaller scale. When sharp sand is substituted for paint in such a machine, the result is a tool which will destroy the most stubborn of substances, and which is used to clean steel ships of barnacles and rust, or to polish great surfaces.

Compressed air has reached its greatest development abroad. It was there that the idea of pneumatic dispatch originated, it being introduced in 1853, when the force was used by Latimer Clark to transfer written dispatches through tubes between two of the stations of the Electric and International Telegraph Company. Since then its use has spread until it is used by firms and corporations for the transfer of small parcels, while nearly every

postoffice in an important city is connected with its sub-stations by pneumatic tubes.

Compressed air has been used as a motive power in the mechanical traction of surface roads for over fifty years. The locomotive must be charged as is the case with the so-called storage battery of the electrician, but a charge will propel a vehicle for from fifteen to twenty-five miles. With the compressed air engine a speed of sixty miles for one hour is quite as easy as a speed of twenty miles an hour for three hours.

With the dawn of the twentieth century has come the discovery of a new force, more marvelous in its possibilities than either steam or electricity. That air might be liquefied if the temperature were made low enough has been known to chemists and scientists for years. As long ago as December and January, 1877-78 air was liquefied by Raoul Pictet, of Geneva, and by Calletet, of Paris, while on June 5, 1885, Professor James Dewar exhibited liquid air obtained at a temperature of 316 degrees below zero, Fahrenheit, before the Royal Institution, London. But the possibilities of its commercial use were not conceived until twenty years later. In March, 1897, Professor Tripler, of New York, announced that he had been experimenting with the new force for several years, with a view to its manufacture upon a scale and at a price which would allow of its use for practical purposes. Almost simultaneously, Professor Linde, of Berlin, announced that he had succeeded in producing liquefied air at a cost which would allow of its use as a motive power for engines of different kinds.

The two methods are probably similar. Professor Linde makes no secret of his process, and states the cost as 10 pfennigs ($2\frac{1}{4}$ cents) for five cubic metres. Consul-General DeKay, in a report to the state department, dated Berlin, March 11, 1897, describes the machine which he uses as a most ingenious piece of mechanism, which yields the product either in fluid or

gaseous form, as may be desired. Its most striking feature is its economy of working, since, once charged, the machine uses the air of the surrounding atmosphere to produce liquid air, and so goes on working, without expense for fresh fuel. After the pump has been in operation for a certain length of time, the operator turns a cock and the liquid air runs out at a temperature of 273 degrees below zero. In Professor Linde's method an air-pump of five horsepower condenses air to a pressure of 200 atmospheres. This air passes down a spiral tube and is let out into a chamber, producing intense cold; then it rises, and, passing on the outside of the same tube through which it was conducted, bathes it and cools the fresh supply of air which has been pumped into the tube to take its place. This air, thus cooled, follows down into the chamber, and, expanding again, lowers its atmosphere, then passes up around the same spiral tube; but as its temperature has become much lower, the new air now in the tube is still further refrigerated. This circulating process is repeated again and again, until the new air pumped into the tubes reaches a temperature of 273 degrees below zero, when it drops into the chamber as a liquid. Thus the air, steadily cooled, is made to refrigerate the newly pumped air more and more, until the necessary degree of cold for liquefaction is attained.

For transportation the liquid air can be packed in a tin can, and sent many miles away when protected by a thick layer of felt. All that seems necessary is to preserve it from the surrounding atmosphere, as is done in many other cases. There is no danger in handling it, provided it is kept away from fire and the expanding gases are allowed to escape. For this purpose Professor Tripler places felt over the mouth of the can, which keeps out the air, without confining the gases. It can be ladled out with an ordinary tin dipper; but if the dipper, while in use, is let fall, it will shatter like thin glass, the intensity of cold rendering iron and steel extremely brittle. Neither

copper, aluminum, silver, gold nor platinum are so affected. Fortunately, leather is not affected either, and so can be used for valves. Rubber, however, in contact with it, becomes as fragile as porcelain. If a tumbler is filled with the liquid air, it will boil hard, and in half an hour will evaporate completely, leaving the tumbler coated with frost. But if the air is placed in a glass bulb, and the bulb set in a larger one, with half an inch vacuum between the two, so that the fluid is protected from the air outside, it vaporizes very slowly, and the tumblerful will last for several hours.

CHEMISTRY.

Among the nations of antiquity the Egyptians appear to have possessed greatest chemical knowledge; they smelted ores, dyed stuffs, colored glass and preserved the human body from decay. They were also familiar with medicines and pigments, soap, beer, vinegar, common salt, vitrol, enamel, tiles and earthenware. The Chinese also early became acquainted with the preparation of metallic alloys, processes for dyeing and for the making of gunpowder, niter, borax, sulphur, porcelain and paper. The Greeks and Romans derived what chemical knowledge they had from the Egyptians and the Phœnicians, but they added little or nothing to the science. Aristotle, however, advanced a theory which for centuries exerted a great influence in the pursuit of the study. He recognized four elementary conditions of matter—fire, air, earth and water. The Arabs, when they overran Egypt in the Seventh Century, imbibed much of this knowledge, which, as a black art, they carried with them into Spain. It then became known as alchemy, the chief aim of which was to transmute the metals and the discovery of the philosopher's stone, the touch of which would convert mercury into gold, and at a later period regarded as curing all diseases.

In 1718 Geoffroy brought out the first table of affinities, and in 1732 the

chemical relation of heat and light were demonstrated by Boerhaave. In 1754-1759 Marggraf added alumina and magnesia to the then known earths—lime and silica. He also extracted sugar from plants, and about the same time Macquer, of Paris, pointed out the existence of arsenic acid. Hales, in 1724, and Black of Edinburgh, in 1756, made important discoveries regarding air and aeriform bodies, showing that carbonic acid evolved during fermentation, respiration, and by the action of acids on chalk, was different from atmospheric air. About 1770 Priestley began to announce a number of important discoveries, among them oxygen, and the ammoniacal, hydrochloric, and sulphurous acid gases. Scheele contributed, in 1773-1786, chlorine, hydrofluoric, prussic, tartaric and gallic acids, also phosphoric acid from bones. During the same period, Bergman and Cavendish were experimenting with gases to the knowledge of which they materially added. Between 1770 and 1794 Lavoisier reorganized nearly all of the then known science, and the system he founded formed a skeleton which the chemists of the succeeding century adopted. In 1787 Berthollet advanced some important doctrines in regard to affinities, and made some valuable discoveries in chlorine. Advanced organic chemistry received an impetus from the researches of Fourcroy and Vauquelin. Mineral chemistry received contributions from Klaproth, and the doctrine of combining proportions was promulgated by Richter.

Among the first of the notable attainments of these early years was the perfection by Dalton (1766-1844) of Richter's doctrine of combining proportions. Dalton was led to the formation of his atomic theory in 1808, by the observation that when a determined quantity of any substance unites with different quantities of another substance, the quantities of the second substance always bear a simple relation of weight to each other. The elements Dalton regarded as composed of homogeneous atoms, each different ele-

ment having its own specific weight. He also discovered the law of multiple proportions, and that the atomic weight of compounds is the sum of the atomic weights of their constituents. Dalton's theories were at once admitted into the science, and formed the basis of innumerable succeeding discoveries. The expansion of gases, the relations of mixed gases, elasticity of steam and evaporation were also the subjects of Dalton's experiments, which were at a later date diffused and extended by Wollaston (1767-1829). In 1812 Brand founded the Society for the Improvement of Animal Chemistry, with a view of extending that branch of the science known as physiological chemistry. Here was an entirely new departure.

Most intimately connected with Dalton's atomic theory was the discovery by Gay-Lussac of the law of combining volumes, in accordance with which gases unite with each other. He proved conclusively that chemical compounds are formed only in a few fixed and definite proportions. He observed that one volume of oxygen when combined with two volumes of hydrogen unites in the form of water. A large proportion of Gay-Lussac's researches were in the field of organic chemistry. His investigation of the cyanogen compounds gave rise to the idea of organic radicals. The first really useful apparatus for the analysis of organic substances was invented by him. The system for determining the specific gravity of the vapors of substances, with a view of controlling their analysis, was also Gay-Lussac's idea. His applications of chemistry to the arts were of great importance, and his methods of assaying silver and gunpowder are still in use.

Sir Humphrey Davy, in his lectures before the Royal Society and the Institute of France, in 1816, especially emphasized the importance of the connection between science and industry. He was the first to suggest the application of chemistry to agriculture. The most notable of Davy's researches were in electro-chemistry. At the same time

that Dalton was working on his atomic theory, Davy discovered two new elements, sodium and potassium, the result of decomposing soda and potash by the electric current. By the same method he also succeeded in separating metals from the fixed alkalies, potash and soda, proving them to be metallic oxides. He disproved the doctrine of Lavoisier, so long dominant, that all acids must contain oxygen. The idea of hydrogen acids was thus introduced, and substances which contain no acids admitted to be salts. Davy's researches upon flame and combustion were especially valuable, leading ultimately to the discovery of the safety lamp.

Thenard (1777-1857) contributed a vast amount of knowledge to the science. His division of the metals into groups, according to their peculiarities at different temperatures in the presence of water, was an important experiment. To him, also, is due the discovery of the peroxide and the persulphide of hydrogen, of boron, hydrofluoric acid and fluoride of boron.

Berzelius (1779-1848), in conjunction with Hisinger, obtained the remarkable amalgam which mercury forms with what is supposed to be ammonium. He was the first to use hydrofluoric acid in the decomposing of minerals and chlorine in their analysis. One of the principle services he rendered was the development of the present theory of the science, and the introduction of an admirable system of chemical symbols, which obtained exclusively until 1832. In that year Dumas, supported by the French school of chemists, opposed the binary system of Berzelius, and substituted one which carried out Dalton's atomic theory to its logical extent. With the new system chemistry assumed a still more systematic aspect.

Like Davy, Faraday (1791-1867) devoted most of his researches to developing the relations of electricity to chemistry. He extended the idea originally suggested by Davy regarding the identity of electricity and chemical affinity, both being but different expressions of one and the same force. His

discovery of benzine and his work upon the liquefaction of chlorine and other gases and upon various compounds of carbon and chlorine, and of ammonia and metallic chlorides, have proved invaluable to the science.

The doctrine of isomerism, which was originated by Faraday, was taken up and promulgated by Mitscherlich, of Berlin (1794-1863), who discovered the laws of isomorphism and diomorphism, in accordance with which the crystalline forms of certain substances are governed.

Wohler's classic synthesis of urea in 1828, hitherto known only as an animal product, marked the beginning of advanced synthetical chemistry. The barrier between organic and inorganic bodies was then broken down, and the domain of practical chemistry immeasurably extended. Immediately following Wohler's discovery, Berzelius, Liebig, Dumas, Laurant, Hofmann, Cahours, Frankland and a host of others especially devoted themselves to the doctrine of substitution, and the result was a vast number of new compounds to which further investigations are constantly adding. Since then alcohol, grape sugar, acetic acid, various essential oils, similar to those of the pear, pineapple, etc., have been formed by combining oxygen, hydrogen and carbonic acid.

The highly complex constitution of various organic products, albumen, fat, gums, resins, acids, oils, ethers, etc., is the subject of organic chemistry, the study of which has led to some of the most marvelous and popular discoveries of the age. Coal tar, the waste product of the gas retort, has proved one of the great bases for synthetical work. Perkin, in 1858, patented a dye-stuff, aniline violet, and that dye marks the beginning of an enormous chemical industry—the production of the coal-tar colors.

The natural coloring materials, which previously had been the sole resource of the industry and which were found generally in their natural state in the vegetable kingdom, were in time supplanted by artificial dyes, converted

from the unpromising black fluid. The first obstacle in the way of popularizing the coal-tar colors was the great expense of their production, in consequence of the small quantities in which the matter, alizarine, is found. Mitscherlich discovered that by acting upon benzine with nitric and sulphuric acids for the production of nitro-benzole he could produce a compound from which aniline might be obtained in large quantities. This change is analogous to that of glycerine into nitro-glycerine, but the nitro-benzole is not explosive. It is an oily liquid with the delightful odor of almonds, and is used extensively in perfumery under the name of essence of mirbane.

By the action of reducing agents the oxygen of the nitro-benzole is replaced by hydrogen, and the result is aniline. The differentiation of color and the many shades and gradations of colors are due to chemical reactions caused by the presence of various acids and bases in the crude aniline oil. Aniline red or magenta was one of the first colors discovered, and the furor it created upon its first appearance in the world of fashion is yet vivid in the recollection of many people. The coloring matter used to produce this shade is a salt of a base known as rosaniline, which is formed from aniline oil by a process of oxidation. The oxidizing agent most commonly used is arsenic acid, whose poisonous nature renders it somewhat unsuitable for this purpose, and there have been frequent cases of poisoning attributed to the wearing of garments dyed with this substance. Taking rosaniline as a basis, most of the other colors are prepared by the action upon it of various chemical reagents. By the action of bichromate of potash and sulphuric acid upon rosaniline aniline, violet is obtained, and aniline blue is formed by heating rosaniline and aniline oil together and treating the combined product with hydrochloric acid. The greens are formed by the addition of sulphur and yellow by the action of nitrous acid upon an alcoholic solution of rosaniline. Aniline black is in reality a

very deep green, formed by the action of oxidizing agents upon aniline oil. The bases producing these various dyes have in turn complicated reactions of their own which produce the shades and variations of colors almost to infinity. Practically about a ton and a half of coal is required to make a pound of rosaniline, but that amount possesses coloring power sufficient to dye two hundred pounds of wool.

Besides coloring matter the chemist has made, coal tar also produces carbolic acid, one of the most powerful antiseptic agents evolved by modern chemistry. Some useful dyes are also obtained from it. Its immediate source is that portion of the distillate known as the light oils, to secure which the tar oil is subjected to a treatment of caustic soda, and the mixture violently shaken. As a result the caustic soda dissolves out the carbolic acid and the undissolved oils collect on the surface, from which they can be skimmed off from the alkaline solution underneath. Neutralization of the soda in the solution takes place with the addition of sulphuric acid, and the salt thus formed sinks, while the carbolic acid rises to the surface. So powerful is this acid when refined and purified that one part in five thousand parts of any decomposable animal or vegetable matter will for months prevent putrefaction.

The manufacture of oleomargarine is one of the most familiar examples of what synthetic chemistry has done in food making. The attempt to secure a substitute for butter was undertaken in 1869, by Mege-Mouries, at the instigation of the French Government, the purpose being to secure a cheap product that might be used by the navy and by the poorer classes. The principal points in Mege-Mouries' patent were the preparation of margarine oil by the artificial digestion of fat taken from animals, and the separation of the stearine, which melts at a high temperature by pressure. The conglomeration so produced was then churned into milk, the emulsion being facilitated by the addition of cow's ud-

der and carbonate of sodium. The result of the process was a compound which, when salted and colored, not only bore a close resemblance to the genuine article, but had almost the same taste and general properties. Later modifications of this process have greatly simplified the making of oleomargarine, as it has come to be called. Cotton seed oil was found to be a valuable adjunct to its composition, and numerous improvements have been patented for purifying the animal fats by fermentation and by the subsequent use of chemicals. For cooking purposes the oleomargarine has proved a substitute for butter, and so perfect has its similitude to the natural article become that stringent laws have been passed in many states of this country and in Europe, with reference to its manufacture and sale.

In the department of synthetic chemistry, the experiments of Berthelot, of Paris, have been most marvelous. He has succeeded in so recombining the fat acids with glycerine as to produce the original fats, and he has also caused all the more common mineral and organic acids to unite with glycerine in a manner precisely analogous. Berthelot has proved conclusively that it is possible to produce anything from eggs to beefsteak in the laboratory. The form will be different, but it will be the same identical food, chemically, digestively and nutritively speaking.

Both saccharine and dulcine (either one of which is more than 200 times as sweet as sugar) have been obtained from coal-tar. The chemists have made several kinds of sugars that are not known in nature at all. Most of them are not fermentable, and for that reason are not digestible. Glucose, though not a synthetic product, is nevertheless the product of certain chemical actions. It is obtained alike from the starch of corn and potatoes, the starch being beaten to a cream and treated to sulphuric acid and marble dust. Tea and coffee are now made artificially in the laboratory. The essential principle of both stimulants is the same. They are chemically iden-

tical in their constitution, and their essence has often been made synthetically. Chemists have succeeded in synthetically producing oil of mustard, which physicians prefer to the natural product, owing to its greater purity. They have also manufactured tartaric acid, turpentine and conine. This last is the poisonous principle of the hemlock, and is almost the same as nicotine, the essential principle of tobacco. The chemists are now able to counterfeit lactic acid, which is the sour principle of sour milk. They also make citric acid, which is the sour of the lemon. An achievement of considerable importance is the manufacture of salicylic acid from carbolic acid. In nature it is obtained from the winter-green plant and from certain varieties of the willow, and it was formerly very costly. It is now made by the ton and is extremely cheap.

The production of artificial musk from coal-tar is a wonderful triumph of synthetic chemistry. The perfumes of nearly all the odorous flowers, due to ethereal oils, are now produced artificially, and so perfect is the similitude to the scent of the real perfume that it is impossible to detect the difference. The ethereal oil that gives the rose its peculiar odor is called "rhodonol," and the same oil is found in lemon grass and in geraniums. The ethereal oils which give to fruits their delicious flavors are all counterfeited easily, inasmuch as they are very simple chemical compounds. Already the chemists are manufacturing oil of banana, oil of raspberry, oil of pineapple, oil of pear and many others. Oil of bitter almonds has also been counterfeited, and though chemically different, it has the same flavor as the real.

The discovery of ozone (allotropic oxygen) by Schönbein, of Basel, and of red phosphorus by Schrötter, of Vienna, have set the chemists to thinking, and to experimenting.

In 1897 E. Moyat discovered a process of making diamonds—very small, it is true, but nevertheless real stones, not imitations. Pulverized coal, iron

chips and liquid carbonic acid were placed in a steel tube and hermetically sealed. The contents were then subjected to the action of an electric current by means of two electrodes introduced into the tube. The iron becoming liquefied, was saturated by the pulverized coal, and the carbonic acid evaporated, thereby creating an enormous pressure on the iron and coal. This pressure increases the dissolution of the coal in the liquid iron. While the mixture is cooling, crystallization of the carbon takes place, partly in the form of real diamonds and partly in the form of crystals. The conglomeration is segregated by dissolving the iron in muriatic acid, and the morsels of pure diamonds are extracted.

In 1888 two French chemists, Frémy and Verneuil, produced rubies precisely similar in color and chemical composition to the natural stones, and of a size sufficiently large to be set in jewelry. It being known that the natural ruby is simply crystallized corundum, or oxide of aluminum, with a trace of coloring matter—chromium, all that remained for the Frenchmen to do was to treat ordinary alumina, containing a little bichromate of potash, with certain fluorides. The mixture was placed in a crucible that was kept constantly heated for one week at a temperature of 2,400 degrees Fahrenheit. After the completion of the process the rubies adhere to the sides of the crucible. The largest rubies thus obtained weigh one-third of a karat. Their crystalline form, hardness and physical characteristics are in every respect identical with the natural stone.

Chemistry has also undertaken the manufacture of ice, for which a number of processes have been devised. The permanent gases, such as hydrogen, or the compounds gases, as the air, are forms of matter which, if subjected to sufficient pressure and cold, become condensed and liquid. At a temperature of 212 Fahrenheit steam condenses into water, while ammonia boils at $28\frac{1}{2}$ degrees. By subjecting ammonia to pressure its boiling point is raised in proportion to the pressure.

Hence, by taking ammonia gas and subjecting it to pressure sufficient to raise the temperature to a high degree, and by pouring cold water on the vessel containing the ammonia, the latter will become liquefied. Removing the pressure and allowing the liquefied ammonia to expand, the temperature falls very rapidly, and as much heat is lost as was added to it by compression. Numerous inventions, based upon this principle, are now in use for the commercial production of ice.

In all branches of analytical chemistry constant improvement has been effected. Gas analysis was perfected by Bunsen (1863-1870). The chemist's balance has been improved by the labors of Becker. New methods of attack have been applied. By the electric furnace M. Moissan was enabled, in 1897, to isolate fluorine, which resisted isolation for so many decades. By the utilization of the electric current rare metallic elements have been reduced from their compounds. So perfect are the processes for the analysis of the metals that the practical assayer does not consider seventy-five determinations an unusual day's work. By a chemical analysis of sea water, Professor Liverside, of Australia, in 1896, discovered that it contains from one-half to one grain of gold per ton, and from one to two grains of silver per ton, the gold existing as a chloride and the silver as a nitrate.

The influence of chemistry upon the industries and the arts has been incalculable. The perfection attained in the manufacture of glass, pottery, tiles and bricks presents a striking instance in chemical technology. Chemically glass is a silicate, or a compound of silicic acid and various bases. It is formed by fusing common sand with the carbonates of the alkalies or with the metallic oxides. By chemical analysis glass-makers are now able to determine just what sand is best suited to the manufacture of each variety of glass. Ordinary window glass is a silicate of lime and soda, and if silicate of potassium is added plate glass is produced. Flint glass is a silicate of

potassium and lead. The effect of the lead is to give increased brilliancy, and renders it soft and easily cut. A mere trace of iron in the sand will render the glass dark. Water-glass is an alkaline silicate. It is readily soluble in water and is largely used in the arts. To obtain the great refractive power necessary for lenses and prisms, a large percentage of lead is used. Colored glasses are produced by the chemical action of various metallic oxides which have been added to the molten materials. The colors produced are found to vary with the degree of heat employed. All the colors of the spectrum may be obtained from oxide of iron; the oxides of cobalt and copper produce the various shades of blue; oxide of gold, ruby red; oxide of manganese, amethyst; a mixture of copper and iron ore, emerald green; and oxide of uranium, topaz.

The making of china is one of the fine arts of the age, and like the manufacture of glass it has been developed entirely by the application of chemistry. The same might be said of brick-making, in which numerous improved processes have appeared. One of the most notable of these is the Chambers brick machine, patented in 1887.

Chemistry allows practically nothing to be wasted now. Cotton seed, long the pest of the Southern plantation, is now being converted into oil, fertilizer and fuel. Sawdust and shavings, looked upon for centuries as absolutely useless, are now mixed with refuse mineral products and pressed into bricks, which are light, impervious to water and absolutely fire-proof. Formerly one-seventh of the coal mined was crumbled so fine in removing it from the mine that it was useless. This is now mixed with pitch and made into bricks that burn with an intense heat and leave no ashes. The skins and intestines of cattle are transformed into the well-known and exceedingly useful substance, gelatine, which is the same as ordinary glue, differing from it only in purity. Common glue is prepared from the trimmings of hides, and

the refuse of slaughter houses and tanneries. Gelatine unites with tannin to form an insoluble compound. This reaction is the basis of the tanning process by which raw hides are converted into leather. Sludge acid, one of the most offensive wastes known to man, has been made to produce a most valuable oil. Carbonic acid gas given at breweries and distilleries during fermentation, has been an enormous waste. By a patented process it is all now collected and liquefied for commercial purposes. Slag, the refuse of the puddling furnace, has proved invaluable in the manufacture of paint, containing as it does 55 to 70 per cent. of pure oxide.

A good indication of the progress that is still being made in chemistry is the constant discovery of new elements. Most of these discoveries since 1860 have been made by the spectroscopic, an instrument constructed by Bunsen in 1859 for chemical research, based on the use of the prism. In 1860 Bunsen discovered rubidium and cesium; Crookes, in 1862, discovered thallium; Reich and Richter, in 1863, indium; Boisbaudran, in 1879, samarium; and in the same year Nilson, scandium, and Cleve, thallium. Ramsay and Rayleigh, in 1894, by a critical study of nitrogen, discovered a new element which they named argon; and Ramsay, in 1895, discovered helium, a rare element previously known to exist only in the sun.

In 1896 a new determination of the relative weights of hydrogen and oxygen was made with more than ordinary care, and the result is that the atom of oxygen is found to be 15.869 times heavier than the atom of hydrogen.

In 1898 chemical science was enriched by the discovery of three new elements in the atmosphere. On June 9, 1898, Ramsay and Travers discovered, by a careful investigation of liquid air, that it contained minute quantities of substances previously unknown. These they named krypton, or "hidden," neon, or "new," and xenon, or "the stranger." Krypton is de-

scribed as an element of twice the density of argon and less volatile than oxygen or nitrogen. Air contains of it about one part to the million; of neon, one or two parts to the hundred thousand; of xenon, about one part to the hundred million. All these new substances are remarkable for their chemical inertness, they refusing to combine with any other elements. They are all monatomic, their molecule consisting of a single atom. Ozone has been liquefied, and the result is a fluid of indigo-blue color. This is very remarkable, considering that liquid oxygen, of which it is but a modified form, is colorless. The density and boiling point of liquid hydrogen was determined in 1898 through the agency of a platinum resistance thermometer.

Remarkable as were the achievements of the nineteenth century in chemical research, the early years of the twentieth century proved as prolific, for in 1903 Madame and Professor Curie of Paris discovered a new and extraordinary substance which they named radium, from its strange property of giving off radiations. It was found in a mineral called pitchblend, in the very rare proportion of one-tenth of a grain to a ton of pitchblend. Radium is hotter than the surrounding atmosphere, shines with a steady blue light, and gives off emanations which severely burn human flesh. These are supposed to consist of helium and of the very minute electrons of which atoms are composed. The latter are given off at a speed of over 100,000 miles a second and a particle of radium can yield them for thousands of years without apparent loss of substance. Such are some of the chief properties of this remarkable substance, the strangest ever discovered. It is exceedingly rare.

Radium Bromide, refined by a new simplified process from ore at the Federal Bureau of Mines' laboratory at Denver, Colorado, contained in two small tubes, to the value of \$11,000, was, in January, 1915, turned over by the government to Dr. Howard E. Kelly, of Johns Hopkins University, of Balti-

more, Md., for use by the National Radium Institute in treatment of cancer cases. It is predicted that the discovery of the new refining process would put the radium treatment within the reach of many sufferers, who heretofore had been unable to obtain it.

MEDICAL SCIENCE.

Many of the secrets of medicine were possessed by the Egyptians. As long ago as 4000 B. C., the Israelites learned the principles of their medical practice, and in India, in the eleventh century B. C., the art of healing appears to have been better understood than it was by either the Egyptians or the Israelites but with them the priesthood prescribed for the sick. Greece was the birthplace of rational medicine, which traveled by way of Alexandria to Rome. After the fall of Rome, the Arabians kept alive the torch of medicine. Expert chemists, they made an especial study of pharmacy and of drugs, founding apothecaries' shops and the pharmacopœia. During the dark ages the Jews and the Moham-medans were the skilful physicians. Latin translations of Arabian renderings of Greek works on medicine helped Europe to recover its knowledge of the medical lore of antiquity.

The study of Anatomy, of Physiology and of Medical Botany began and very gradually the foundations of true medical science were laid.

Ambrose Paré, who died in 1590, is called the father of modern surgery. In 1628 William Harvey explained the circulation of the blood, with the effect of setting many ingenious minds to work at trying to place medicine on a physiological basis. Yet at the beginning of the nineteenth century the most learned physician was but a babe compared with the practitioners of today. In England medical practitioners were divided into three classes, physicians, surgeons, and apothecaries, most of whom had some knowledge of their profession; still they had received a technical education and had been examined before admission to practice.

But beneath was a host of charlatans, who practiced without diplomas. It was because of these charlatans that the first advance toward improvement was made.

The Apothecaries Act was passed in Parliament on January 15, 1815. This declared it necessary that every medical man should give evidence that he possessed some knowledge of his profession before he began to practice, and that all apothecaries should be licensed.

Anatomy soon showed the effect of the new state of affairs, for a thorough knowledge of the human body was insisted upon as a qualification for the practice of medicine. But the obtaining of subjects for dissection was attended with great difficulties. Students were forced to learn from books without the aid of practical demonstration, and doctors gained knowledge through mistakes and killed not a few patients in the course of their experiments. People were bled for fevers and for fainting fits.

A college course in the early part of the nineteenth century was expensive and not obligatory. To have "read with a doctor" was all that the law required for the granting of a license to practice medicine. In a doctor's office there were usually one or more students whom he taught what he knew, to the best of his ability; what they learned depended on their own.

There were comparatively good medical colleges in Paris and in Vienna in which clinical surgery and medicine were taught.

Marie Francois Xavier Bichat, who died in 1802 when only thirty-three years of age, supplied a new basis for the science of disease through his "Anatomic Generale."

Avenbrugger, of Vienna, invented direct percussion in the eighteenth century. Mediate percussion was introduced by Piorry in 1828. Supplemented by auscultation, it revolutionized the methods of medicine, making possible exact diagnosis.

Auscultation is accomplished by means of the stethoscope. By its use it is practicable to determine the condi-

tion of heart and lungs by listening to the sounds produced by their movements. Chloroform was discovered in the thirties, but not until 1847 was it used as an anæsthetic. Prior to that time it was considered that the knife and pain were inseparable in surgical operations.

William T. G. Morton obtained permission from Dr. John Collins Warren to etherize a patient on whom the physician was going to operate. This was done in 1846 at the Massachusetts General Hospital. From Boston the use of ether in connection with surgery spread to all parts of the world.

In 1847 Dr. James Young Simpson, of Edinburgh, inaugurated the use of chloroform as an anæsthetic.

Ether is preferred as an anæsthetic in America, and chloroform is the favorite in Europe. The use of these anæsthetics renders possible operations which could not have been performed in the old days and in the old ways.

Just here antiseptics step in and immeasurably increase the scope and lessen the danger of surgery. Blood poisoning and other terrible results used to follow almost unfailingly certain sorts of wounds. Louis Pasteur led the way in discovery that germs or microbes from the air caused the festering and poisoning of wounds. In 1867 Joseph Lister first published his experiments on the antiseptic treatment of wounds. He thoroughly appreciated the work of Pasteur and, applying his theory to the process of healing, recognized that living organism must be excluded from wounds. On this basis he founded a system of antiseptic surgery which has greatly reduced the mortality rate.

In 1881 Professor Koch, of Berlin, announced to the scientific world that perchloride of mercury or corrosive sublimate was a more powerful antiseptic than thymol, eucalyptus oil, iodoform, and boric, salicylic and carbolic acids, which were all in use. This and carbolic acid are now the usual antiseptics. The hands, the clothing, instruments of the operator and his assistants are carefully sterilized before

an operation is performed, and the atmosphere is impregnated with an antiseptic.

Diseases of the bones and joints are wonderfully dealt with. Hip disease, so long thought incurable, is, in its milder forms, completely banished without any evil effects; in its severer aspects a few inches of bone are sacrificed and the patient recovers, possessing, it is true, a shortened limb, but one strong and well. Henry J. Bigelow (1852) was the first surgeon in the United States to perform this operation of excision of the hip joint. "White swelling," or scrofulous, or tuberculous disease of the knee no longer entails the loss of the thigh; instead merely the diseased tissues or articulation is removed. Hideous deformities which used to be entirely irremediable are amenable to the surgeon's skill. Humped backs and lateral curvature of the spine are overcome by enveloping the patient in a jacket formed of crinoline covered with wet plaster of Paris. The subject hangs with both hands from a bar while he is encased in this. The jacket hardens and is left on; from time to time, it is replaced by another and, at last, the crooked back is straight. Club feet are made symmetrical by the wise use of the knife applied to contracted tissues or misshapen bones. Bow-legs and knock-knees and other deformities of the limbs are straightened by the surgeon's boldly cutting across the crooked bones, putting them in proper position and ensuring their correct growth by encasing the limbs in plaster of Paris and leaving them to the healing of nature. These wonderful benefits are not for the wealthy alone, for there are charitable institutions to which the poor may apply and receive help.

If a fracture of a bone of the arm or leg refuses to unite or mends improperly, the surgeon lends his aid and, cutting down to the refractory fragments of bone, drills and joins them with silver wire or lends them the support of a silver splint held in place by tiny screws. The wound is closed, the broken bone heals, and the silver

becomes embedded in the tissues, where it is left.

The United States has led the way in the ligation of the larger blood-vessels. Some of the Americans who have gained distinction by the performance of such feats—each one of which was a triumph of surgery—are Amos Twitchell (1781-1850), first to tie the primitive carotid artery; John Syng Dorsey (1783-1818), first American to tie the external iliac artery; William Gibson (1784-1868), first to tie the common iliac artery; Valentine Mott (1785-1865) tied the *arteria inominata*; J. Kearney Rodgers (1793-1857) tied the left subclavian artery between the scaleni in 1846; John Murray Carnochan (1817-1887), ligation of the femoral artery in 1851; Hunter McGuire tied the abdominal aorta in 1868. This had been accomplished in 1817 by Sir Astley Cooper. Not only are such wonders wrought with blood-vessels and frightful hemorrhages prevented, but cases of internal aneurism which were formerly thought hopeless are now cured.

In dealing with nerves the modern surgeon has none of the dread which forbade the old-time practitioner to touch them. Nerves are spliced and sewed so that evil results from accidents to them are entirely prevented and, for the cure of obstinate neuralgia, surgeons actually penetrate to the root of the disease in spinal column or skull. In 1856 John Murray Carnochan performed the exsection of the superior maxillary nerve beyond the ganglion of Meckel.

Skin-grafting is another performance of the century. Ulcerated or otherwise diseased surfaces on a patient's body are supplied with healthy cuticle transplanted in small portions from other parts of his own body or from other individuals. Injuries which were pronounced incurable in former days are thus entirely healed. The French surgeon Reverdin is especially celebrated in connection with skin-grafting on ulcerated surfaces.

The large cavities of the body are all reached by the surgeon's knife. He

excels in abdominal operations. He cuts into a kidney or the liver and sews them up again with ease. He can remove one of the kidneys from the body, if necessary, leaving the other to do its work. Or if one of these organs becomes dislocated the surgeon sews it into place. The gall-bladder, the spleen, and the pancreas can each be excised and many inches of the intestine can be cut away. Indeed, in some cases several feet of the intestine have been removed with the successful re-establishment of the alimentary canal. It was William T. Bull who first showed that intestinal wounds can be mended with needle and silk. It is a difficult piece of work and must be accomplished quickly enough to prevent leakage of the contents. Surgical needle-work is so deftly performed that even the suturing of longitudinal wounds of blood-vessels is done. Professor Horoch, of Berlin, has accomplished wonderful feats in the suturing of veins and even arteries. Tumors are removed from the brain, the skull being opened for the purpose, as well as for the stoppage of intracranial bleeding and for the treatment of intracranial abscesses. Lately, surgeons have been trying to cure epilepsy by trephining operations to remove the pressure on the brain, which is thought to be the cause of that disease. The thorax is penetrated for various reasons; sometimes for banishing empyema, and sometimes for operations on the lungs. A wound in the heart has been considered, throughout the ages, absolutely fatal. But Dr. Rehn, of Frankfort-on-the-Main, successfully demonstrated that such is not necessarily the case. He sewed up a cut in the heart occasioned by a knife thrust, and his patient recovered.

The French scientist Trouve was experimenting with fish when he discovered a way of illuminating the interior of their bodies so that their entire internal anatomy was visible. A fish was tempted to swallow a small electric light bulb which could be withdrawn from its stomach at the will of the scientist, who had attached to it a wire;

but the glass bulb was put to another use by a physician who saw it applied to the fish. He persuaded a dyspeptic patient to swallow such a lighted bulb, and found that he could, in a darkened room, see what was the matter with his stomach. It is a common thing nowadays to examine the interior of the bladder with an electric light. The throat is inspected, a searchlight being thrown into the wind-pipe to find out if there is anything the matter with that organ. Instruments of the greatest delicacy have been made for removing abnormal growths from the throat when they have been revealed by the electric light. To the layman, however, the most striking use of electric light in surgery is the illumination of the body to discover if anything is wrong with the pharynx or other cavities behind the face. The whole mask of the face is illuminated by an electric bulb, and the result is ghastly to the observer.

More wonderful in its results has been the application of the Röntgen Ray to surgical operations. Frederick Strange Kolle, one of the most prominent of the newly arisen specialists in radiography, gives eight uses to which the X-ray can be applied in medicine and surgery. These are: To study normal anatomy; to preserve the relations of fragments in fractures of bones; to study and diagnose its locations; to study and diagnose diseased bone; to diagnose ankylosis of joints; to locate foreign bodies, *i. e.*, bullets, needles, glass, wood, etc., in flesh or bone; it is of diagnostic value in cases of tumors or enlargements of inner organs, such as the spleen, liver, kidney, heart, etc.; in obstetrics radiograms may be used to show the exact relations between the bony pelvis and the fœtus in utero.

Mainly through the researches of Koch, the life history of various bacteria has been made known. In 1882 the bacillus tuberculosis was discovered by Koch and asserted to be responsible for consumption. The bacillus of cholera was discovered also by Koch in 1883.

Bacteria pervade the world, and are to be found in all three kingdoms, animal, vegetable and mineral, and wherever the conditions are favorable, they develop and multiply. They are breathed in the human body with the air or are swallowed with every mouthful of food that is taken. If they meet with the proper conditions for their growth and reproduction they may do vast harm. Once in circulation they may be carried to every part of the body and injure its organs. It has recently been discovered that the white corpuscles of the blood are living organisms, which are ever on guard to overcome harmful bacteria. The leucocytes, as these white corpuscles are called, are generated by the spleen. They do their work well as long as the bacteria are not too numerous or malignant for them, which is seldom the case when food is good, air and water are pure, and proper sanitary rules are observed.

Bacteria are sedulously studied by scientists who hope to discover the proper means of preventing disease by germ destruction or by inoculation. Thus in 1894 was discovered the antitoxin cure for diphtheria.

Among the remarkable results of Louis Pasteur's researches is the method of preventing hydrophobia by inoculation. His first experiment was the inoculation of two rabbits with mucus from the mouth of a child who had died of hydrophobia. This was in December, 1880. Nearly five years after, in July, 1885, the first human being was inoculated for the prevention of the dread disease. This was Joseph Meister, an Alsatian child, who had been severely bitten in fourteen places by a mad dog. Eminent Parisian physicians pronounced the boy almost certain to die of hydrophobia. Pasteur treated Joseph with daily injections of a series of spinal cords of rabbits who had been inoculated, beginning with one kept so long that it was too weak to harm even a rabbit, and ending with one virulent enough to give a large dog the rabies in eight days. The successive inoculation lasted thirteen days and

prevented the boy's having hydrophobia.

A special feature of the medical science of the present era is its tendency towards specialization. This has given rise to physicians who devote their entire energies to a chosen branch of their profession. Ophthalmology, or the science of the eye, has been carried to a remarkable state of development. Von Helmholtz, the famous German scientist, has been called the "father of the modern school of ophthalmology." He revolutionized the science by the invention of the ophthalmoscope. This is a disk-shaped mirror with a small hole through the center, and is used for examining the interior of the eyes. The physician seats the patient beneath a lighted lamp, and throws a reflected ray of light into the patient's eye, and perceives the interior of the eye illuminated by the ray of light. He can then see how things are, both inside and outside of the organ, and prescribe accordingly. The eye is more thoroughly understood than any other organ of the body, which is well, for, owing to its complicated structure and extreme delicacy, it is peculiarly liable to disease and injury. Many diseases, which were thought incurable until within the last fifty years, are now constantly remedied. Errors of refraction, such as myopia or short-sightedness, and hypermetropia or far-sightedness, were not well understood until Franz Cornelius Donders, professor of physiology at Utrecht, published his work on "Anomalies of Accommodation and Refraction of the Eye." Long before the Christian Era artificial eyes were made of gold, silver, copper and ivory. To-day they are made so ingeniously that it is difficult to detect their presence. The finest ones are made in France, of a superior kind of porcelain, by a secret process. Others are manufactured of glass and come from Germany.

Dentistry is almost entirely a growth of the nineteenth century. The American dentist has led the way in the perfection of his art, and he is justly celebrated all over the world. The first

native dentist in the United States is supposed to have been John Greenwood, who began to practice in 1788. The first dental school in the United States was chartered by the Maryland Legislature in 1839. Since then colleges and schools of dentistry have sprung up all over the land. Men come from all over the civilized world to the United States for higher education in dentistry. American ingenuity has invented numerous mechanical aids to the practice of the art. In his methods the dentist is well abreast of the times, so that what were considered wonderful labor-saving inventions only a few years ago are being rapidly succeeded by others still more useful and remarkable. The dental engine is now run by electricity instead of by the operator's foot, and the same force has been applied in other ways to assist the practitioner. There is an electric mallet for use in filling excavated cavities, which is both ingenious and useful; there is an electric syringe for drying out cavities, and small electric lamps are used in connection with reflectors for exploring the mouth. Nor is this all; the new power, compressed air, is used to keep the saliva away from the part of the mouth under treatment.

One of the triumphs of American dental science is the implanting of human teeth in artificially formed sockets of the jaw. In 1881 Dr. Younger, of San Francisco, made the first artificial socket for a tooth. He discovered that a tooth that has been extracted, even a long time before, may, after being thoroughly prepared and sterilized, be implanted in such a socket and left with confidence that the bony tissues will harden around it, holding it firmly in place. The operation has been repeated successfully many times since it was first performed by Dr. Younger.

Hygiene scarcely existed during the Middle Ages. The ancients had regarded simple laws of health and the prevention of disease, but these were neglected or forgotten, together with many other things, for centuries. The Mohammedans and Jews alone practiced sanitary science. The rest of

Europe did not realize that the public health might be preserved and disease prevented by cleanliness and the observation of simple rules of health. The cities of Europe were filthy; there was practically no drainage and people herded together so closely that no one can wonder at the frequent occurrence of terrible epidemics. Such visitations were received as inevitable, and they were allowed to run their death-dealing courses, unchecked. Often the bodies of those who had died with the Black Plague were allowed to be unburied for days. The one measure for warding off infection was the burning of pitch in the open streets "to purify the air." In the twelfth century fifteen epidemics are said to have occurred; in the thirteenth century there were at least twenty. The condition of the people can scarcely be conceived. In England, even in the time of Elizabeth, many still lived in clay-plastered hovels. The fireplace was often a place hollowed out in the clay floor and there was no chimney, the smoke escaping through a hole in the roof. The floor was strewn with rushes, "under which," to quote Erasmus, "lies unmolested an ancient collection of beer, grease, fragments, bones, and everything nasty." The use of rushes for a floor covering was by no means confined to the occupants of hovels. We are told that the floor of the presence chamber in Greenwich palace was, at this time, covered with hay. Personal cleanliness was as little understood as the care of the house. Clothing was often worn until ready to drop off with rotteness. The Black Death or Great Pestilence came to Europe from the East. It is estimated that its victims numbered 25,000,000. In 1348 this terrible epidemic visited England, where it raged frightfully, fed by the squalor and filth which it found. Again and again it broke out, until it reached its climax in the Great Plague of London in 1665. Another awful epidemic in London was the "sweating sickness," which usually killed its victim in twenty-four hours or less. Erasmus did not hesitate to attribute this dread

disease to the filthy habits and neglected surroundings of the people. The Great Fire was a blessing in disguise. It removed many of the impurities and disease centers of the city, and prepared the way for wider streets, better houses and improved paving.

Street paving was one of the things most neglected in the dark ages. In the Moorish cities of Spain fine pavements still remain, testifying to their high civilization, but until the twelfth century, the streets of Paris were unpaved. They were then so filthy that it became absolutely necessary to improve them. Paving was followed by a dim perception of the need of some system of drainage, but its evolution was slow indeed. Jail fever was one of the diseases resulting from ignorance of the laws of sanitation. The prisons in England, where the fever was frequent, were vile in the extreme. There was no fit drainage, or ventilation; and disinfection was poorly practiced, if ever. From the towns in which the prisons were, the fever would often be carried to other places. A Scotch regiment, having become infected through some prisoners, lost two hundred men. In 1750, while attending the assizes at the Old Bailey, the lord mayor, an alderman, two judges, most of the jury and many spectators caught the disease and died of it. Jail fever has been identified as a severe form of typhus fever which, as is well known now, is caused by over-crowding and improper air, the cure being isolation, fresh air and light. The great prison reformer, John Howard, recognized the fact that the ravages of jail fever could be prevented, and he worked until he forced the world to realize it, also, and the prisons were improved. Howard was a martyr to the cause, for, after he had accomplished a vast amount of good in England, he visited other countries, bent on the same good errand and, at last, died of a disease contracted in the course of his humane work. Out of humble beginnings have grown mighty results. The perfect sanitation practiced by many governments render

their prisons today among the most healthful abodes.

Other steps toward disease prevention were made in the eighteenth century. Captain Cook discovered that the scourge of the sailor, scurvy, could be kept away by a proper diet. The value of Captain Cook's methods is realized when the mortality among his crew, during a long voyage, is contrasted with that among Lord Anson's men. Out of 900 men, during a single long voyage, Anson lost 600 from scurvy. Strating out with 118 men, Cook came home, after a three years' voyage, with 114. Of the four who died, not one perished from scurvy. The early years of the nineteenth century saw this disease almost stamped out. In 1780 there were 1,457 cases of it received into one naval hospital in England; in 1807 there was but one case. So uncommon has scurvy become, that comparatively few surgeons in the navy, at the present time, have ever seen a case of it, while the whaling crews, which it formerly desolated, are, thanks to the superior food which they now receive, almost exempt from it.

The practice of vaccination began about 1796. It was received, for the most part, with as intense prejudice as inoculation had been before it. Yet, during the first part of the century, it won its way by the enormous amount of good it accomplished. The decrease in the number of deaths from small-pox was marvelous. In England, prior to 1800, the average annual number of deaths from small-pox per 100,000 of the population was over 700. After 1800 the average was about twenty-five or thirty per 100,000. Not only did small-pox kill so large a proportion of the population of England, but it disfigured or injured permanently many others. In the years before 1800, when the disease was very prevalent, most of the inmates of the blind asylums had lost their sight through its ravages. At the same time, it was calculated that fully thirty per cent of all children born died of small-pox before the end

of their first year. In New York between 1785 and 1800 there were 5,756 burials in Trinity and St. Paul's churchyards; of these 610, or a little more than one-ninth, were deaths from small-pox. During the years 1805 and 1806, the population of the city having grown, there were 4,595 burials in the same two cemeteries; 110, or about one-fortieth of the entire number were deaths from small-pox. At the present time, although small-pox has not been universally banished, vaccination has reduced it to a minimum.

The progress of medical science and the enlightenment of the people at large, during the nineteenth century, have brought about an entirely new attitude in regard to the preservation of individual and public health. The maintaining of proper sanitary conditions and the preventing of the spread of disease are accomplished in innumerable ways. Municipal government watches over the health of the public. Boards of Health enforce regulations which have been found by experience to be necessary. Thus in most cities it is required by law that householders and physicians notify the proper authorities of the occurrence of contagious and infectious diseases as soon as their presence is detected, and on the receipt of such notification, proper precautions are taken to prevent their spread. By prompt isolation of the patient thousands of lives may be saved. Health officers inspect the drainage systems, the water supply and general sanitary conditions of the districts under their supervision. Food and drugs are examined, and laws against adulteration are enforced. Instructions on health and science are issued to the people, and there are free dispensaries. In some parts of the world the establishment of free baths and wash-houses has had a noticeable effect on the public health, causing an actual reduction of the number of applications for admission to the hospitals.

Quarantine is the rule at seaports. All incoming vessels are inspected carefully, and no suspicious cases of disease are passed by. Thus, of late

years, cholera and other dreaded epidemics have been kept out of the United States and England when they were raging elsewhere. But it is not quarantine alone, efficient though it be, which is restricting the ravages of frightful epidemics. Yellow fever is kept under by proper methods of sanitation. Even in the Southern cities of the Union, changed conditions have lessened its terrors. Typhus and typhoid fever, two very different diseases, which, one hundred years ago, were not distinguished between, have each been traced to its true cause and are dealt with accordingly. So it is with many other ailments. Especial progress has been made in the discovery of the nature of zymotic diseases.

PRINTING AND PUBLISHING.

In reviewing the great inventions of the past century, it is most fitting that we first consider the remarkable progress in book and magazine making.

Here a complete revolution has taken place—in methods of printing, in illustration and in machinery and process for binding and covering.

Up to 1813 very little progress had been made in the making of books since the days of Gutenberg or of Caxton. For a period of 350 years all printing was done on the old platen press, the almost identical counterpart of Gutenberg's invention. The press used by Benjamin Franklin, now exhibited in the National Museum of Washington, is a fair type of the platen style of printing press. A brief description of it and the methods employed in its operation may give an adequate idea of the crudity of the industry as it obtained up till the beginning of the past century. The press is constructed almost entirely of wood, and consists of a flat "type bed" upon which the "form" (the type) is placed, above which is suspended the "platen" or impression plate. The bed is rolled under the platen by the "rounds" (a wooden cylinder and straps). To the platen is attached an impression screw by which power is applied when it is desired to make an impression; a pull-

ing of the handle causing a revolution of the screw, forcing the latter down upon the type bed. The press, of course, was operated entirely by hand, and the marks of the statesman-printer's ink-besmeared fingers are impressed upon the clumsy frame. The type was inked with what were known as inking balls. These consisted of large round pads or balls of leather stuffed with wool. These balls were charged with ink and rubbed briskly one upon the other until there was an even distribution of the printing fluid. Then the apprentice applied them to the face of the type with both hands until the letters were uniformly inked. It is in connection with this process that the term "printer's devil" had its origin. The manipulation of the inking balls being the most disagreeable task in the old-time printing office, it was always consigned to the newest apprentice, in most cases a raw and awkward youth, who in his first endeavors invariably succeeded in getting more ink on his face, hands and clothing than on the balls. The appearance which he presented with visage besmeared with the black fluid was extremely suggestive of his satanic majesty, and that title became the inheritance of the printer's apprentice and so remains to the present day, although the inking balls have long since been consigned to oblivion. In 1798 the Earl of Stanhope made a press entirely of iron, which was an improvement, though not a radical one, over the machine used by Franklin. The frame was cast in a single piece, and the power was applied by a combination toggle joint and lever. The machine was able to turn out about 250 impressions per hour, and was considered a marvel in those days.

In 1803 two new principles were discovered, which in their development and modification have made the marvelous product of the presses of today possible. During that year Frederick Koenig, a Saxon, commenced experiments with the view of rendering the then existing hand press more rapid and useful. His idea was to substitute

the composition roller for the inking balls, and the impression cylinder for the platen. After years of experimenting he finally succeeded in inventing a machine embodying both of these principles, and to be operated not by hand power, but by steam. In 1812 Mr. Walter, proprietor of the London Times, ordered two of these machines. This press was capable of turning out 800 copies of the Times in an hour—a marvelous production in that time. Each of the machines erected by Koenig for the Times printed only one side of the paper, so that when the sheet had been half printed by one machine it had to be passed through the other in order to be "perfected." The first improvement on the Koenig press was made by Cowper and Applegath, who contrived a modification by which both sides of the sheet could be printed in one and the same machine. The principles of the Koenig and Applegath machines have been followed, with more or less diversity of detail, in most of the printing machines at present in use for ordinary book and magazine work.

Until recently many of the very finest books, where it is necessary to have great clearness and definite color, were done by platen presses constructed after the Stanhope model. The successive improvements on the Stanhope press were the Columbian, introduced in 1817, in which the power was applied by a compound lever; and the Washington, invented by Samuel Rust, in 1829. In 1830 Adams applied the principle of the hand press to a machine operated by steam and known as the Adams book press, capable of giving 5,000 and 7,000 impressions per day of good book work, the impression being given by raising the bed upon which the form rested against the stationary platen. The latter has superseded other platen presses. In the first stages of their mechanical construction, the processes of making the ordinary book are identical to those used in magazine work. The Adams presses are still used in some degree for this work. But the presses in general use

are the flat-bed cylinder and the rotary perfecting press. Flat-bed presses use sheets of paper made to some definite size to suit the book. The rotary perfecting press is necessarily printed from rolls of paper and cut on the printing machine to the required size.

As the work required for magazines and books is quite different from newspaper work, the speed at which the rotary book perfecting press is run is much slower. The advertising and plain text forms are run at the rate of about 6,000 sheets per hour, each sheet containing either thirty-two or sixty-four pages. As the cuts and half tones have to be printed upon clay-coated and calendered paper, which cannot be put up in rolls, this kind of work has to be done on the flat-bed presses. There is used at the present time, in connection with these flat-bed presses, a marvelous automatic mechanical device known as a "feeder," which does the work once done by hand feeders. With the saving in labor and the increase in production over hand feeding the earnings of a printing press are about 25 per cent greater with the aid of this automatic device.

From the presses the paper is carried on trucks to the folding machines. These folding machines also are among the most wonderful labor saving devices of the age. These modern folding machines are of three or four different makes and do their work in various ways. One is known as a quadruple folder, another as a double sixteen folder, and another as a four-eight folder. Automatic feeders are also used to deliver the sheets to the folding machines at the rate of 3,000 per hour.

From the folding machine the sheets are taken to a hydraulic press, where they are subjected to a pressure of 70,000 pounds. The process compresses the paper for convenience in handling through the subsequent stages of the work. The folded sheets are then laid upon tables, where girls take one of each section until the full book or magazine is gathered together. This work is all done by hand. After the sheets

have been gathered into a complete book, they are wire-stitched or sewed with thread by machines and sent to the covering machines. This cover machine puts the covers on magazines at the rate of 25,000 copies per day. The books are fed into a clamp at one side, and are let down, one at a time, and passed over wheels that rub glue on the back, and as each book comes along the platform on which the covers are piled automatically rises and presses a cover against the book, which is then carried along until it comes in contact with iron presses, fastening the cover still more firmly.

In the process for binding in cloth or more expensive material, the folded sheets are pressed solidly together by the smashing machine, whence they pass into the sewing machine, and then to the trimming machine, which trims the three sides smoothly and accurately—a work that was formerly done altogether by hand. The next process is to round the backs, a thin coat of glue previously applied holding the round in shape. A piece of muslin is then put over nearly the entire length of the back and extends an inch or so over the sides. If the book is to have gilt, sprinkled or marbled edges, those are the next processes. A number of the books are secured between two boards. The fine dust-like coloring seen on the edges of books is obtained by sprinkling the color selected on the upturned edges with a large brush. In marbling, the fine colors are mixed by the workmen and are dropped on the surface of a long pan especially constructed for the purpose and partially filled with a mucilaginous mixture. The colors remain on the surface and are given their blending and beautifully formed shapes by "combing." The edge of the book is then dipped sufficiently to take up the colors from the surface of the mixture. If the edges are to be gilded, they are scraped smooth and dusted with red chalk. The size on which the gold is laid consists of albumen and water, and the burnishing is done with a bloodstone or agate. In cloth-bound books the cases are made almost

entirely by machinery, the cloth and the boards being cut to the exact size; the cloth is then glued on the boards, and the case is then ready to be embossed in the style desired, then the book is "cased in" and put in the standing press to set it.

Besides the innumerable mechanical inventions in the way of printing machinery, folding machines, feeders, type-setting devices, etc., all of which have considerably cheapened the production of books and magazines, there have also been devised a vast number of processes for printing and illustrating. Of printing processes, the most important in book and magazine work is that known as electrotyping, introduced about 1840. If electrotypes were not used, after a few thousand impressions both the type and wood cuts would become worn and damaged to such an extent that they would be useless.

The mold used for electrotyping is made of wax, the wax is melted for the purpose and poured into shallow pans and after it has become solid a treatment of finely powdered pure black lead is applied. The latter is sprinkled over the surface and any excess is removed by blowing of bellows. The wax thus prepared is placed in contact with the type form or wood cut, which have also been covered with black lead, and a powerful press is applied. In a few minutes the wax takes a sharp impression, embracing all the most delicate details of the work, and becoming at the same time very hard. Black lead is then applied to the face of the mold with a soft brush, then it is put into a battery consisting of a solution of sulphate of copper, and upon being removed after some hours the black lead surface is covered with a compact deposit of copper in which is reproduced the most minute details of the engraved block or letter-press form. The wax is removed from the copper plate by exposing the molds to a gentle heat. The thin copper shell is tinned on the back and a molten metal poured on to the depth of about one-eighth of an inch. This is called backing, and

gives solidity to the copper plate. After it has been screwed through a block of wood of specific and accurate fitness, the plate is ready for the printers' hands.

Modern methods of illustration began about the beginning of the last century, with the discovery of the art of lithography, which happened as follows:

Aloysius Senefelder, a musician employed in one of the theaters in Munich, was arranging his musical composition on a slate formed of flakes of limestone, when by accident the score he was thus preparing was knocked into a slop-bucket of greasy water. When the slate had been recovered he was surprised to see that the grease remained upon the musical characters, while the background of the stone was comparatively clean. A brilliant idea struck the musician, and he set to work with enthusiasm. Within four years from his first observation he had succeeded in contriving a suitable press for taking impressions, and in securing proper crayons and appropriate acids for acting on the stone. Although he guarded his secret jealously, it leaked out, and a number of persons, through experiment, succeeded in rediscovering the art for themselves; so that Senefelder never profited by his invention. In 1810 the first lithographic press was established in London by Mr. Hullmandel, and its value as a means of multiplying works of art became generally recognized.

Although it required years of patient endeavor to perfect the art, it is simple enough. The stones used in the process, the best of which come from Germany, are prepared by rubbing one slab against the other with sand and water. If the stone is to receive written characters it is polished by means of pumice stone, but if it is intended for a drawing the stone is grained by means of the friction of a finely-sifted sand. If it is desired to reproduce written characters or drawings done with a pen, lithographic ink is applied with a fine brush or a pen, as the case may demand. The ink is composed of

wax, gum-mastic, gum-lac, lampblack, and soap. The professional lithographer must possess a great amount of dexterity, as it is necessary for him to write the characters on the stone in a reversed position. In order to see the characters in their usual position a looking glass for viewing his work is used. For drawing, a lithographic crayon is used. The composition of this crayon differs, but is usually of soap, wax, grease and lampblack with other minor ingredients. Exactly the same method is followed as in the reproduction of written characters, save the necessary reversals. After the design has been placed on the stone, a mixture of nitric acid and gum is allowed to run over it. This process renders all parts of the stone not protected by the ink or crayon incapable of receiving ink, while at the same time it more strongly fixes the outlines of the drawing. After being thoroughly cleansed of any traces of foreign matter, the stone is subjected to a treatment of turpentine, which apparently obliterates the very design itself. Then it is wiped with a damp sponge or cloth, a roller charged with printers' ink is passed over it, and the characters reappear more plainly defined than before. To obtain an impression it is now only necessary to lay a sheet of damp paper on the inked stone, and to apply the necessary pressure. After each impression the stone is wiped off with the damp sponge before the inking roller is again applied.

For some time after the discovery of the art, impressions were only taken in ink and crayon of one color. Then a new branch of the art, termed chromolithography, was introduced, and now fac-similes of paintings in oil, water-color drawings, etc., can be successfully reproduced at prices so cheap that the homes of the humblest are adorned with transcripts of the works of the best artists. The principle of chromolithography is necessarily the same as that of the original discovery, the only difference being that each color in the picture to be reproduced requires a separate stone. If there are twenty-

five shades of color to be reproduced it is necessary to prepare twenty-five stones. The first thing to be done is to place an outline of the picture on a lithographic stone. This outline by various dots and crosses conveys to the artist just where the impressions of the successive tints are to be placed on the press so that the colors will blend correctly. The gradations of the colors, and their blendings by superposition, require true artists who can thoroughly enter into the spirit of the work. The stone that is to give the blue tints to the picture is prepared with its especial crayon, as are the red, green, yellow, etc. When the stones have all been treated, the printing of the whole series of impressions is proceeded with. The same sheet of paper is laid on each stone in succession as regards the proper order and colors, and with the greatest possible accuracy of register.

The artistic beauty of the modern book or magazine owes much to the art of photography as developed during the latter half of the nineteenth century. The half-tone cuts and photogravures with which even the cheapest periodicals are now replete were unknown less than sixty years ago. The first experiments in photographic printing were conducted unconsciously by Niepce when he was wrestling with the problem of fixing the image of the camera obscura, in the early days of photography; indeed, his first successes in photography were in the reproduction of engravings. In 1852 the engraving process known as the calotype was patented by Fox-Talbot, who has, like Niepce, been introduced to the reader in the chapter dealing with the photographic art. This constituted the first effective printing process in which photography is the primary agent. Since its publication the number of printing processes gradually evolved out of the photographic art are legion.

The most popular method of applying photography to the production of printing surfaces is that wherein the portions to be printed stand out like type, receive ink, and are printed in the ordinary manner of letter press.

This process owes its origin to Poitevin and Pretch—about the middle of the last century—and has been perfected in late years by the work of Woodbury, Ives and Meissenbach, the latter's process having been patented as late as 1882. To obtain pictures by this process of photo-engraving the artist makes what is known as a wash drawing, four times as large as the illustration is to be. The drawing then goes to the engraver, who makes what is known as a half-tone cut. The process employed is an interesting one. A glass screen, with diamond-scratched lines, ruled at right angles so closely together that the spaces are hardly distinguishable, is placed one-eighth of an inch in front of the sensitive plate in the photographic camera. Looked through, the effect is much the same as gazing through a fine sieve. These lines reappear in the half-tone engraving when printed. The wash drawing is photographed in the usual way and with the usual sensitized plate, with the screen in the camera between the plate and the picture. This produces the negative of the picture, and in order to have the same position of the object in the engraving as in the original, the film of the negative is treated to one or two coats of collodion, which gives it a consistency to permit of its being removed. This film is transposed to the opposite side of another glass. The new negative is carefully mounted, and used as a medium for printing on a zinc plate, which has been polished to a high degree, coated with a solution of albumen and gelatine and sensitized with bichromate ammonia. It is then dried and placed in the printing frame, the coated side next to the negative film. Upon being exposed to the light for a sufficient period, the plate is removed from the frame in a dark room and washed under running water, then dried and heated until the picture appears of a dark-brown color. The back of the plate is rubbed with wax while hot to protect it from the etching solution, which eats only where the plate is unprotected—that part which is blank in the unfinished engraving. The plate

is allowed to remain in the acid bath for fifteen minutes, or until sufficient depth is obtained. It is then washed, trimmed and mounted for the printer.

The mode of illustration known as photogravure differs from the half-tone engraving in two respects. First, it is printed from an intaglio plate, and second, it is not capable of being used in a type press under any conditions. Where the steam cylinder press can turn out 10,000 perfect half-tone engravings per day, the expert printer cannot produce more than 200 good photogravures. The perfecting of the process, whereby this beautiful style of illustration, is due to Walter B. Woodbury, who took out his first patent for the method in 1866. The process consists in getting an intaglio impression of the image to be copied. The intaglio plate is filled while warm with a hard, stiff ink, which is pressed into every depression. The deepest portions of the mold naturally take the most ink, and represent the darkest shadows, while the shallowest portions represent the more delicate tones. After the high lights of the plate are carefully wiped off by hand, the plate is run through the press, in connection with the paper, and the latter lifts from the sunken surface of the plate all the ink it has previously received, holding it on the surface of the paper in masses of color differing in depth and consequently in tone, according to the series of graduations from the pure, high light of the clear paper to the rich, velvety black of a solid body of ink spread over the surface of the paper and not pressed into it. The photo-mechanical process for letter-press printing, which has already been referred to in the chapter dealing with photography, contributes greatly to the cheap production of illustrated books and magazines.

In 1875 Ottmar Mergenthaler, a Swiss mechanic and inventor, living in Baltimore, constructed a machine that has been an immeasurable revolutionizing factor in the composing-room. The Linotype is a machine controlled by finger keys, like a typewriter, which creates the type matter as demanded

ready for the press, to be used once and then melted down. Instead of producing single type of the ordinary character, it casts type metal bars or slugs, each line complete in one piece, and having on the upper edge type characters to print a line. These bars are called linotypes and are assembled automatically in a galley side by side, in proper order; so that they constitute a form, answering the same purpose and used in the same manner as the ordinary forms consisting of single types. After being used the linotypes, instead of being distributed at great expense, like type forms, are simply thrown into the melting pot attached to the machine to be recast into new linotypes. The Linotype is operated by a single attendant sitting at the keyboard. The manipulation of the finger keys by this single operator results in the production, delivery and assemblage of the linotypes in the galley ready for use. In the hands of a skillful operator it will do the work of five men "at the case," or setting type by hand, and will make better wages for him, without half the wear and tear of bone and blood and muscle. Within two hours the operator on the machine is able to cast as much new type as the fastest printer can set in seven or eight hours' hard and steady work by the old method. There have been numerous modifications and improvements made upon the original model.

The only formidable rival of the Linotype is the typesetting machine. While the former is a line-casting machine, the latter actually sets the type. One style of the typesetting machine is constructed in the form of a cylinder divided into two parts, having a vertical channel for the reception of the type of exactly the width and depth of the type in use. The upper half of the cylinder is entirely dependent on the lower half, which is stationary, and revolves by a step-by-step movement upon the lower half, in such a manner that the channels in the upper half are superimposed upon those of the lower half, so accurately that, in the very brief pause made by the upper half as

it revolves, the type from the upper half are permitted to drop into the channels of the lower half where they belong. The lower cylinder being filled the machine is ready for operation. By the manipulation of the finger-board the type drop, one by one, until there are enough to form a line. At the side of the operator sits the "justifier," who takes, from the long line of type creeping out of the machine, just enough to make one line of the length required, and, as in hand composition, this is spaced out and mechanically moved out of the machine into a galley attached thereto.

The modern newspaper, like the printing press itself, was of long development. The Nuremberg Gazette was founded in 1457; the first Italian newspaper was the *Notizie Scritte*, issued monthly in Venice, in 1566. The first English newspaper was the *English Mercurie*, published during the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

In 1622 Nathaniel Butter began the publication of the *Weekly News*, the first regular English newspaper. He also introduced the custom of having newspapers hawked about the streets. Upon the accession of Queen Anne a new era of journalism began. During her reign the *Daily Courant*, the first daily paper deserving of the name, was started. The *St. James Gazette* was established in 1724; the *Morning Chronicle* in 1769, and the *Times* in 1788, all three of which have survived until the present time.

The first newspaper published in the United States appeared in Boston on September 25, 1690. It was a quaint little sheet and bore the equally quaint title of "Publick Occurrences, Both Foreign and Domestick." Published by Benjamin Harris at the London Coffee House. Printed by Richard Price."

In 1704 John Campbell, the postmaster of Boston, established the *Boston News-Letter*, which regaled its readers with extracts from paragraphs in Latin, stating that they would also be favored with literary pabulum in Greek were it not for the lack of the proper type.

The beginning of the nineteenth century did not see any material improvement in newspapers. Sunday papers began to appear as the century neared its first quarter, and in the next twenty-five years the great New York dailies—the *World*, the *Sun*, the *Tribune* and the *Times*—came into being. In 1843 a very important newspaper event occurred in England. This was the founding of the *Economist* by James Wilson. This was the first paper to devote itself to the journalism of public economics.

In 1848-49 the Associated Press was formed. This organization became the dissemination of intelligence from all quarters of the globe, and is today one of the most important factors in journalism. During the Civil War American newspapers and journalistic methods made great strides.

The first great step toward facilitating the production of the modern newspaper was made by Colonel Robert Hoe, of New York, in 1840, when the first of the type-revolving presses was built. This invention marked the beginning of an epoch in the history of the printing industry. The Hoe press embodied a new principle, the type being placed on the circumference of a cylinder which rotates about a horizontal axis. At about the same time a type-revolving press was devised by Mr. Applegath for the London *Times*. In deference to the proprietor of the paper it was called the *Walter Press*. The only material difference between the English and the American inventions was that in the former the type-holding cylinder revolved on a vertical axis. The capacity of these presses varied according to the number of impression cylinders arranged around the type cylinder, presses being successively made with four, six, eight and ten impression cylinders, respectively. Among the first of the multiple cylinder presses erected by Robert Hoe was one for the Philadelphia *Ledger* in 1846, and one for the parisian daily paper, *La Petrie*, in 1848. The first eight-cylinder press was built for the New York *Sun* in 1850, and the first

ten-cylinder press for the New York *Herald* in 1857. The modern perfecting press—so called because both sides of the paper are printed in passing through the press—became possible only after the perfecting of the stereotyping process.

Prior to 1860 all promptly issued editions of newspapers were printed from the type forms direct, the type being locked together on the circumference of the cylinder by mechanical methods. To make stereotype plates with sufficient expedition for newspaper work had not before that time been considered practicable. In 1861 the difficulty was removed by the employment of a steam bed to dry a novel style of papier mache matrix, which could be conveniently used for making stereotyped reproductions of the type pages in the form of plates to fit around the type-bearing cylinders. For this process a number of sheets of tissue paper are pasted together and, while still moist, are pressed into the hollows of the type. A sheet of stout unsized paper, called "plate paper," is then laid on top, and a strong pressure applied. In this condition the paper matrix is dried and hardened by a gentle heat until it is fit to be used for casting the metal. For this purpose the matrix is placed on the internal surface of an iron semi-cylinder, with the face containing the impression of the type inward. The matrix is held in place by clamping screws, a cylindrical iron core occupies the central part of the semi-cylinder, and a small space being left between the concave face of the mold and the convex surface of the core. This intervening space is then filled with a molten metal composed of an easily fusible alloy of lead, antimony and other metals. This takes the form of the mold with great accuracy, and when the metal is solidified, which happens very quickly, the core is first lifted out and then the plate in the form of a semi-cylinder, the internal surface of which has exactly the diameter of the external surface of the roller of the machine on which it is to be placed. This semi-cylindrical plate is one-half

the length of the roller, and represents one page of the newspaper, so that four such plates are fixed on the circumference of each revolving cylinder. At first it required half an hour to make a single plate by this process, but now a plate is made in about seven minutes, and a half-dozen duplicates of the same plate can be made in 15 minutes, as the process of casting in no way injures the paper mold. The process of stereotyping is used for all styles of newspaper presses, and frequently for book work of the cheaper grades.

The perfecting of the stereotyping process gave a great impetus to the development of the newspaper as we know it today. The type-revolving printing presses, with their capacity of from 10,000 to 20,000 sheets an hour, were the marvel of their time, and did good service during the Civil War from 1861 to 1865. Effective as they were, their supremacy was shortlived, and they are now only a memory. In 1863 the first web perfecting press was erected by Bullock, and the printing industry experienced another great revolution whose ultimate results are the marvelous machines now in use, capable of turning out from 50,000 to 100,000 papers, perfected and folded, in an hour. The Hoe Octuple press of the present day is indeed one of the modern mechanical wonders of the world. This press prints, folds and cuts 96,000 complete eight-page papers per hour, or 1,600 every minute, or 48,000 sixteen-page papers, the size of the page being that of the ordinary newspaper. The press is fourteen feet high and twenty-five feet long. It contains eight impression cylinders, each cylinder having a capacity for eight stereotype plates or pages on its circumference. The paper of double width is fed from four independent rolls, seventy-three inches wide, one side being printed upon as the paper passes over the set of stereotype plates on one cylinder, and the other side being printed upon as it passes over the plates of another cylinder. The paper travels through the cylinders at the rate of thirty-two

and one-half miles per hour, the sheets being automatically cut, pasted, folded and counted out in bundles of twenty-five. Although the work is automatically performed after the press is started it requires the work of ten men and boys to operate the machine and to remove the folded sheets as fast as they are printed.

In 1893 an innovation was introduced into newspaper printing. This was the colored supplement, now so popular in the Sunday editions of the great metropolitan dailies. The idea had long been a fixed one in the minds of newspaper proprietors, but it was impossible to carry it out because up to the date mentioned no machine equal to the quality of work required had been produced. The press which finally met the requirements was that invented by F. Meisel. This press not only prints in four colors in one operation, but prints on both sides, folds, cuts and delivers the sheet free from smudge or offset. The principle involved in the printing of a sheet in three colors and black is that of the solar spectrum, which reduces light to the three primary and the four secondary colors, and by the application of the primary colors, one over the other, succeeds in the production of not only the three colors, but by different surfaces on the printing blocks, obtains the different tones which make color printing acceptable and artistic. The press frame is built in the form of two double arches, between which the different cylinders are placed, there being two cylinders for each color, one to carry the plates and the other on which the printing is done. When the paper is inserted between the first pair of rolls it strikes the yellow, the first color to be printed. This is the first color printed in all processes of printing, and in lithography is called the foundation color. The plates, which are electro-types of engravings or the engravings themselves, are made flat, and afterward bent to a size suitable for the cylinder made to receive them. In close proximity to the cylinder is a semi-circular carriage holding the form rollers.

These rollers are adjusted in sockets, so that when the carriage is brought into position the inking rollers come in exactly the proper contact with the plates. To supply the rollers with ink the same device common to all presses is used. A fountain of ink is placed in close proximity to the rollers. An iron cylinder revolves slowly in the fountain, presenting a new surface to the fountain roller at every trip which the latter makes to the vibrating distributing roller, which first receives it. The latter is a large roller of steel, which comes in contact with two inking rollers. The ink is well distributed before it reaches the plates by a series of rollers. From the yellow, the band of paper passes to the red plates, which are inked in the same way. The result thus far obtained is a sheet of paper clearly printed not only in yellow and red, but there also appear the different tones of orange produced where the red is made to cover the yellow, the depth of tone being dependent upon the relative strength of the yellow and red.

The sheet having received its impress from the red cylinder now passes to the blue, from which it emerges colored in all the gorgeous tints of the rainbow. Not only do the yellow, red and blue appear upon the sheet, but all the tints which combinations of those colors naturally produce. After the colors are printed the paper passes to the black rollers. Then it is ready to be printed on the other side. As it leaves the black cylinder the paper is joined by an offset web of manila paper, and together the two webs pass through the last pair of printing cylinders. The idea of the offset web is to take the surplus ink from the first side, and as it constantly presents a fresh surface, the printed paper is freed from smut. This press runs at a marvelous speed considering the complications involved in its work. Seven thousand eight-page sections are printed in an hour, and even a higher speed is possible at the risk, however, of an inferior output.

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LITERATURE

ENGLISH.

In its historical sense, the name "English" is now conveniently used to comprehend the language of the English people from their settlement in Britain to the present day, the various stages through which it has passed being distinguished as Old, Middle and New English. The oldest stage is treated as a separate language under the title of Anglo-Saxon, while the transition period which connects the two has been called Semi-Saxon. Old English or Anglo-Saxon and Modern English are for all practical ends, distinct languages. In a wide sense the English language includes not only the literary or courtly forms of speech used at successive periods, but also the popular and, it may be, altogether unwritten dialects that exist by their side. Only on this basis can we speak of Old, Middle and Modern English as the same language, since in actual fact the precise dialect which is now the cultivated language, or "Standard English," is not the descendent of the dialect which was the cultivated language or "English" of Alfred, but of a sister dialect then sunk in comparative obscurity.

The English language, thus defined, is not "native" to Britain—that is, it was not found there at the dawn of history—but was introduced by foreign immigrants at a date many centuries later. At the Roman Conquest of the island the languages spoken by the natives belonged to the Celtic Branch of the Indo-European or Indo-Germanic family. The long occupation of South Britain by the Romans familiarized the provincial inhabitants with Latin, which was probably the ordinary speech of the time.

The Angles, Saxons and their allies

came of the Teutonic stock, and spoke a tongue belonging to the Teutonic or Germanic branch of the Indo-Germanic family, the same race and form of speech being represented in modern times by the people and languages of Holland, Germany, Denmark, the Scandinavian peninsula and Iceland, as well as by those of England and the colonies.

The Teutonic or Germanic people, after dwelling together in a body, appear to have scattered in various directions, their language gradually breaking up into three main groups, which can be already clearly distinguished in the fourth century, North Germanic or Scandinavian, West Germanic or Low and High German and East Germanic, of which the only important representative is Gothic. The dialects of the invaders of Britain belonged to the West Germanic branch.

At the dawn of history the forefathers of the English appear to have been dwelling between and about the estuaries and lower courses of the Rhine and the Weser, and the adjacent coasts and isles. Many Frisians accompanied the Angles and Saxons to Britain, and Old English was in many respects more closely connected with Old Frisian than with any other Low Germanic dialect.

The earliest specimens of the language of the Germanic invaders of Britain that exist, point to three well-marked dialect groups: the Anglian; the Saxon, generally called West Saxon; and the Kentish. These three dialects corresponding in all likelihood to Bede's three tribes, the Angles, Saxons and Geatas.

As it was amongst the Angles of Northumbria that literary culture first appeared, and as an Angle or "Englisc" dialect was the first to be used for

vernacular literature, *Englisc* came eventually to be a general name for all forms of the vernacular as opposed to Latin; and even when the West-Saxon of Alfred became in its turn the literary or classical form of speech, it was still called *Englisc* or "*English*."

The linguistic changes were gradual, and it is of course impossible to lay down any exclusive series of dates, having special reference to the midland dialect from which literary English is mainly descended, the following may be given as approximate dates:

Old English or Anglo-Saxon.....	to 1100
Transition Old English.....	1100 to 1150
Early Middle English.....	1150 to 1250
Middle English.....	1250 to 1400
Late and Transition Middle English.....	1400 to 1485
Early Modern or Tudor English.....	1485 to 1611
Seventeenth Century Transition.....	1611 to 1688
Modern or Current English.....	1689 onward

The Old English or Anglo-Saxon tongue corresponds more closely to those modern literary German, though both in nouns and verbs the forms were more numerous and distinct.

The introduction and gradual adoption of Christianity brought a new series of Latin words connected with offices of the church.

The earliest specimens we have of English date to the end of the seventh century, and belong to the Anglian dialect, and particularly to Northumbrian, which, first attained to literary distinction. Of this literature in its original form mere fragments exist, the most interesting of which come from Bede, a man, who for literary power, had for centuries no rival in Europe.

But our chief acquaintance with Old English is in its West Saxon form, the earliest literary remains of which date to the ninth century, when under the political supremacy of Wessex and the Scholarship of King Alfred it became the literary language of the English nation.

Among the literary remains of the Old English may be mentioned the epic poem of *Beowulf*, the original nucleus of which dates back to heathen times; several works of Alfred, the *Old English Chronicle*; the theological works of Wulfstan.

The Old English period is usually considered as terminating 1120, with the death of the generation who saw the Norman Conquest.

The Conquest established in England a foreign court, a foreign aristocracy and a foreign hierarchy. The French language became the only medium of intercourse. The native tongue except in a few stray cases ceased to be written at all. Hence each successive literary effort of the reviving English tongue showed a large adoption of French words to supply the place of the forgotten native ones, till by the days of Chaucer they constituted a notable part of the vocabulary. While the eventual though distant results of the Norman Conquest was thus a large reconstruction of the English vocabulary, the grammar of the language was not directly affected by it. During the twelfth century, while changes were going on, we see a great confusion of grammatical forms.

Within three generations after the Norman Conquest the lights of the Anglo-Saxon Church were being transliterated into the current idiom of their prosperity. While these southern remains carry on in unbroken sequence the history of the Old English of Alfred, the history of the northern English is an entire blank from the eleventh to the thirteenth century. In reality the Northern English had entered upon its transition stage.

Soon after the Conquest we find an undoubted Midland dialect in the transition stage from Old to Middle English, in the eastern part of ancient Mercia; this dialect was destined to become the English of the present day. In this district and in the monastery of Peterborough, one of the copies of the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, transcribed about 1120, was continued by two succeeding hands to the death of Stephen in 1154.

It was not till after the middle of the fourteenth century that English obtained official recognition. For three centuries, therefore, there was no standard form of speech which claimed any pre-eminence over the others.

We class as Middle English the extensive literature which northern England produced during the fourteenth century. The earliest specimen is probably the Metrical Psalter copied during the reign of Edward II. The gigantic versified paraphrase of Scripture history is held also to have been composed before 1300. In the fourteenth century appeared the theological and devotional works of Richard Rolle. From 1400 onward the distinction between Northern English and Lowland Scottish became clearly marked.

In the southern dialect one version of the work called the "Rule of Nuns" exhibits a dialectal characteristic which had probably long prevailed in the south. Among the writings which succeed, "The Owl and the Nightingale" before 1250, the "Chronicle" of Robert of Gloucester (1298) are of special importance in illustrating the history of southern English.

Chaucer's great contemporary, William Langland (about 1400) used the Old English alliterative versification for the last time in the south. Rhyme had made its appearance in the language shortly after the Conquest, and in the south and midlands it became decidedly more popular than alliteration.

But the recognition came at length. Already in 1258 was issued the celebrated English proclamation of Henry III, or rather of Simon de Montfort in his name, which, as the only public recognition of the native tongue between William the Conqueror and Edward III, has sometimes been spoken of as the first specimens of English.

In the productions of Caxton's press we see the passage from Middle to Early Modern English completed. The year 1485, which witnessed the establishment of the Tudor dynasty, may be conveniently put as that which closed the Middle English transition, and introduced Modern English. With the introduction of the printing press, books became more numerous.

The beginning of the Tudor period was contemporaneous with the Renaissance in art and literature. The re-

vival of the study of Greece and Rome led to the introduction of new words.

The date of 1611 which nearly coincides with the end of Shakespeare's literary work and marks the appearance of the Authorized Version of the Bible, may be taken as marking the close of Tudor English. The language was thenceforth Modern, although the spelling did not settle down to present usage till about the revolution of 1688. The latter date also marks the disappearance from literature of a large number of words, chiefly of such as were derived from Latin during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Of these nearly all that survived 1688 are still in use.

In comparatively modern times there has been a revival of interest in old forms of English, several of which, following in the wake of the revival of Lowland Scots in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, have produced a considerable literature in the form of local poems, tales and "folk-lore."

English Literature, in the etymological sense of the word, had no existence until Christian times. There is no evidence either that the heathen English had adopted the Roman Alphabet, or that they had learned to employ their native monumental script on materials suitable for the writing of continuous compositions of considerable length.

It is, however, certain that in the pre-literary period at least one species of poetic art had attained a high degree of development, and that an extensive body of poetry was handed down from generation to generation. This unwritten poetry was the work of minstrels. Its metre was the alliterative long line, the lap rhythm of which shows that it was intended to be recited.

The conversion of the people to Christianity necessarily involved the decline of the minstrelsy that celebrated the glories of heathen times. However, Chaucer's knowledge of "the song of Wade" is one proof among others that even as late as the fourteenth century the deeds of Germanic heroes had not ceased to be recited in English verse.

We possess portions of four narrative poems treating of heroic legend—*Beowulf*, *Widsith*, *Feunesburgh* and *Waldere*.

One of the marvels of history is the rapidity and thoroughness with which Christian civilization was adopted by the English. Augustine landed in 597; forty years later was born an Englishman, *Aldhelm*, who in the judgment of his contemporaries throughout the Christian world was the most accomplished scholar and the finest Latin writer of his time.

In the next generation England produced in *Bede*, a man, who for centuries, had no literary rival in Europe.

The Old English poetry was written, probably without exception, in the cloister, and by men who were familiar with the Bible and with Latin devotional literature.

Considering that a great deal of Latin verse was written by Englishmen in the seventh and succeeding centuries, and that in one or two poems the line is actually composed of an English and a Latin hemistich rhyming together, it seems strange that the Latin influence on Old English versification should have been so small.

Nearly all the religious poetry that has any considerable religious value seems to have been written in Northumbria during the eighth century. The remarkably vigorous poem of "*Judith*," however, is certainly much later; and the "*Exodus*," though early, seems to be of southern origin.

The most original and interesting portion of the Old English literary poetry is the group of dramatic monologues—*The Banished Wife's Complaint*, *The Husband's Message* and *Wulf and Eadwacer*. That they are all of one period is unlikely, though their occurrence in the *Exeter Book* shows that they cannot be later than the tenth century.

While the origins of English poetry go back to heathen times, English prose may be said to have its effective beginning in the reign of *Alfred*. Vernacular prose of some kind was written

much earlier; the laws of *Ethelbert* of Kent were well known to *Bede*. Later kings of Kent and of Wessex followed the example of publishing their laws in the native tongue. *Bede* is known to have translated the beginning of the Gospel of *John*.

The early part of the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* is probably founded partly on prose annals of pre-Alfredian date. Up to the middle of the ninth century, Latin continued to be regarded as the appropriate vehicle for works of any literary pretension.

Of the works translated by King *Alfred* and the scholars he employed, "*St. Gregory's Pastoral Care*" and his "*Dialogues*" are expressly addressed to the priesthood; if the other translations were intended for a wider circle of readers they are all essentially religious in purpose and spirit.

Other fruits of *Alfred's* activity are his laws and the beginning of the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*. Apart from the "*Chronicle*," the bulk of his literature consists of translations from Latin, the substance of which is derived from sources mostly accessible to us in their original form.

From the early years of the eleventh century we possess an encyclopædic manual of the science of the time by the monk *Byrhtferth*, a pupil of *Abbo of Fleury*. It is a compilation, but executed with intelligence. To this period belong the curious tract on "*The Wonders of the East*." In these works, and some minor productions of the time, we see that the minds of Englishmen were beginning to find interest in other than religious subjects.

The crowding of the English monasteries by foreigners, which was one of the results of the Norman Conquest, brought about a rapid arrest of the development of the vernacular literature.

The twelfth century is a brilliant period in the history of Anglo-Latin literature, and many works of merit were written in French. But it is substantially correct to say that from this point until the age of *Chaucer* vernacular

acular prose served no other purpose than that of popular religious edification.

At the beginning of the thirteenth century a new species of composition, the Metrical Chronicle, was introduced into English literature.

The huge work of Layamon, a history of Britain from the time of the mythical Brutus till after the mission of Augustine, is a free rendering of the Norman-French "*Brut*" of Wace, with extensive additions from traditional sources. The knowledge of the poem on the part of later writers is scarce, but distinct echoes of its diction appear in the chronicle ascribed to Robert of Gloucester, written about 1300.

Romantic poetry assumed a vernacular form about 1250 and during the next hundred years its development was marvelously rapid.

The popularity of home-grown tales (with which may be classed the wildly fictitious "*Coeur de Lion*") was soon rivalled by that of importations from France.

During the first half of the fourteenth century the rapid disuse of French as the ordinary medium of intercourse among the middle and higher ranks of society, and the consequent substitution of English for French as the vehicle of school instruction created a widespread demand for vernacular reading.

The literature which arose in answer to this demand, though it consisted mainly of translations or adaptations of foreign works, yet served to develop the appreciation of poetic beauty, and to prepare an audience in the near future for a poetry in which the genuine thought and feeling of the nation were to find expression.

CHAUCER TO THE RENAISSANCE.—The age of Chaucer is of peculiar interest to the student of literature, not only because of its brilliance and productiveness, but also because of its apparent promise for the future. In this, as in other aspects, Chaucer is its most notable literary figure. Beginning as a student and imitator of the best French poetry of his day, he was, for

a time, like most of his French contemporaries, little more than a skillful maker of elegant verses. While he was still striving to master perfectly the technique of this pretty art of trifling, he became acquainted with the new literature of Italy, both poetry and prose. This poetry was of wider range, of fuller tone, of far greater emotional intensity.

The prose he did not imitate as prose, but there can be little doubt that the subject matter of Boccaccio's tales and novels, as well as his poems, affected the direction of Chaucer's literary development.

This transformation was effected not so much through the mere superiority of the Italian models to the French as through the stimulus which the differences between the two gave to his reflections upon the processes and technique of composition.

Chaucer was a conscious, reflective artist, seeking for the proper arrangement of events, the significant exponent of character, the right tone, and even the appropriate background and atmosphere—as may be seen in the transformations he wrought in the "*Pardoner's Tale*."

It is therefore in the latest and most original of the "*Canterbury Tales*" that his art is most admirable, most distinguished by technical excellences.

Chaucer, however, was not the only writer of his day remarkable for mastery of technique.

There was the beginner of the "*Piers Plowman*" cycle, the author of the "*Prologue*," and there also blossomed that delicate flower of loneliness and aspiration, rediscovered in the nineteenth century, "*Pearl*," a wonder of elaborate art as well as of touching sentiment. All these writings are great—they possess technical merits of a very high order.

After Marlowe had developed the technique of blank verse, this technique was available for all; that after Pope had mastered the heroic couplet and Gray the ode, and Poe the short story, all men could write couplets and odes and short stories of technical correct-

ness. But this was singularly untrue of the technical gains made by Chaucer and his great contemporaries: "Pearl" and "Patience" were apparently unknown to the fifteenth century, but "Piers Plowman" and Chaucer's works were known and were influential in one way or another throughout the century.

Chaucer's influence was wide and lasting, all the poetry of writers who pretended to cultivation and refinement, throughout the century, directly or indirectly, was imitative of his work.

In England the three chief followers of Chaucer known to us by name are Lydgate, Hoccleve and Hawes. Hoccleve was not as prolific as Lydgate, his work while comparing favorably, in quality, with Lydgate's, attracted much less attention.

Lydgate's productivity was enormous, but his work seemed designed merely to satisfy the desire of fifteenth century readers for information, the craving for facts—true or fictitious. Style was a thing that Lydgate and his fellows tried to supply, and some of them supplied it abundantly, according to their lights.

Stephen Hawes, with his allegorical treatise on the seven liberal sciences, came later than these men, only to write worse. He was a disciple of Lydgate rather than of Chaucer.

It is obvious that the fundamental lack of all these men was imaginative power, poetic ability. This is a sufficient reason for failure to write good poetry. It seems strange that their imitation of Chaucer was what it was. They not only entirely failed to see what his merits as an artist were and how greatly superior his mature work is to his earlier, in point of technique, they even preferred the earlier and imitated it almost exclusively.

A misunderstanding of Chaucer's verse existed from the sixteenth century to the time of Thomas Tyrwhitt; it seems clear that it began even earlier, in Chaucer's own lifetime.

There were women writers in England in the Middle Ages, Juliana of

Norwich wrote her "Revelations of Divine Love" before 1400.

The much-discussed Dame Juliana Berners is the supposed compiler of the treatise on hunting in the "Book of St. Albans." And a shadowy figure is the supposed authoress of a "Nut Brown Maid." And there is an interesting entry among the records of New Romney for 1463-1464, "Paid to Agnes Forde for the play of the Interlude of our Lord's Passion, 6s. 8d." This is apparently the earliest mention of a woman dramatist in England. Finally, Margaret, countess of Richmond, the mother of Henry VII, not only aided scholars and encouraged writers, but herself translated the fourth book of St. Thomas a'Kempis's "Imitatio Christi." Women seem indeed to have been lovers of books and patrons of writers.

The most original and powerful poetry of the fifteenth century was composed in popular forms for the ear of the common people and was apparently written without conscious artistic purpose. Some of the poems deal with secular subjects, some with religion and some are curious and delightful blendings of religious worship and aspiration with earthly tenderness for the embodiments of helpless infancy and protecting motherhood which gave Christianity so much of its power over the affections and imagination of the middle ages.

Hundreds of songs written and sung in the fifteenth century must have perished; many lived only a single season and were never even written down, but chance had preserved enough of them to make us wonder at the age which could produce such masterpieces of tantalizing simplicity. In histories of English literature the ballads have been so commonly discussed in connection with their rediscovery in the eighteenth century that we are apt to forget that some of the very best were demonstrably composed in the fifteenth and that many others of uncertain date probably belong to the same time.

Besides the epic ballads the fifteenth century produced ballads in dramatic

form, three plays of this character (all concerning Robin Hood) have come down to us.

The fifteenth century writer was a comic dramatist of original power and of a skill in the development of both character and situation previously unexampled in England.

Another form of the medieval drama, the Morality Play, had its origin in the fifteenth century, or else very late in the fourteenth. The earliest known examples of it in England date from about 1420. These are the "Castle of Perseverance" and the "Pride of Life." But none of the fifteenth century Moralities is literature of the first rank. It is not until the beginning of the sixteenth century that a morality play of permanent human interest appeared in "Everyman," which, after all, is a translation from the Dutch.

There was a comparatively large amount of prose written in the fifteenth century, mainly for religious or educational purposes, dealing with the same sorts of subjects that were dealt with in verse, and in some cases not distinguishable from the verse by any feature but the absence of rhyme.

Only five writers need be named: John Capgrave, Reginald Pecock, Sir John Fortescue, Caxton and Malory.

Although the intellectual and spiritual movement which we call the Italian Renaissance was not unknown in England in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, it is not strange that it exercised no perceptible influence upon English literature, except in the case of Chaucer. Chaucer was the only English man of letters before the sixteenth century who knew Italian literature.

When the middle ages ceased in England it is impossible to say definitely. Long after the new learning and culture of the Renaissance had been introduced there, long after classical and Italian models were eagerly chosen and followed, the epic and lyric models of the middle ages were admired and imitated, and the ancient forms of the drama lived side by side with the new until the time of Shakespeare.

Not a little of the absurd diction of the middle of the sixteenth century is merely a continuation of the bad ideals and practices of the refined writers of the fifteenth.

ELIZABETHAN TIMES—GENERAL INFLUENCES, AND PROLOGUE TO 1579.—This is the period of the English Renaissance, in the wider sense, and it covers all and more of the literature loosely called "Elizabethan."

The English Renaissance of letters only came in full flower during the last twenty years of the sixteenth century, later than in any southern land; but it was all the richer for delay, and would have missed many a life-giving element could it have been driven forward sooner.

What then in England were the forces? Two of them lie outside letters, namely, the political settlement, culminating in the later reign of Elizabeth, and the religious settlement, whereby the Anglican Church grew out of the English Reformation. A third force lay within the sphere of the Renaissance itself, in the narrower meaning of the term. It was culture. "Elizabethan literature took its complexion from the circumstance that all these three forces were in operation at once.

The enthusiasm of 1590-1600 was already dying down in the years 1600-1610, when the great tragedies were written; and soon a wholly new set of political forces began to tell on art. The religious inspiration was mainly confined to certain important channels; and literature as a whole, from first to last, was far more secular than religious. But Renaissance culture, in its ramifications and consequences, tells all the time and over the whole field, from 1500 to 1660.

Down to 1579 the Tudor rule was hardly a direct inspiration to authors. The reign of Henry VII was first duly told by Bacon, and that of Henry VIII stages by Shakespeare and Fletcher, in the time of James I.

The later years of Henry VIII were full of episodes too tragically picturesque for safe handling in the lifetime

of his children. The next two reigns were engrossed with the religious war; and the first twenty years of Elizabeth, if they laid the bases of an age of peace, well-being and national self-confidence that was to prove a teeming soil for letters, were themselves poor in themes for patriotic art.

The English Reformation, so long political rather than doctrinal or imaginative, cost much writing on all sides; but no book like Calvin's "Institution" is its trophy.

Carrying on the work of Fisher and Cranmer, the new church became the nursing mother of English prose, and trained it so well, for the purposes of sacred learning, translation and oratory, and also as a medium of poetic feeling, that in these activities England came to rival France. How late any religious writer of true rank arose may be seen by the lapse of over half a century between Henry VIII's Act of Supremacy and Hooker's treatise. But after Hooker the chain of eloquent divines was unbroken for a hundred years.

In and after the middle of the century the classics were again put forward by Cheke, by Wilson, and by Asham in his letters and in his Schoolmaster (1590), as the true staple of humane education, and the pattern for a simple yet lettered English.

The literature of the translations from the classics in prose and verse increased; slowly rose in style and power, and at last, like the translations from the modern tongues, were written by a series of masters of English, who thus introduced Plutarch and Tacitus to poets and historians.

It must be noted that the play of philosophic thought only becomes marked after 1580, when the preparatory tunings of English literature are over.

The typical Elizabethan poet is Michael Drayton, who followed Spenser in pastoral, Daniel, Sidney, Spenser and Shakespeare in sonnet, Daniel again in chronicle and legend, and Marlowe in mythological story. There is plenty of satiric and raillery in the

spirit of the time, but the most genuine part of it is drawn off into drama.

As the age of Elizabeth receded, some changes came slowly over non-dramatic verse.

In Donne poetry became deeply intellectualized, and in temper disquisitive and introspective. Donne's passion is so real, if so unheard-of, and his brain so finely-dividing, that he can make almost any image, even the remotest, poetical.

Of poets yet unmentioned, Robert Herrick is the chief, with his two thousand lyrics and epigrams, gathered in "Hesperides and Noble Numbers" (1648). His power of song and sureness of cadence are not excelled within his range of topics.

Few writers have found a flawless style of their own so early in life as John Milton (1608-1674). His youthful pieces show some signs of Spenser and the Caroline fantastics; but soon his vast poetical reading ran clear and lay at the service of his talent.

His vision and phrasing of natural things were already original in the Nativity Ode, written when he was twenty; and there also his versification was that of a master, of a renovator. The *L'Allegro* and *Il Penseroso*, the *Cosmos* (1634), the *Lycidas* (1637), of it all, the newness, the promise, the sureness amid the current schools, the historian finds in these poems with their echoes of Plato and Sannazzaro, of Geoffrey of Monmouth and St. John, the richest and most perfect instance of the studious, decorative Renaissance style, and is not surprised to find Milton's scholars a century later in the age of Gray.

The sonnets were written before or during Milton's long immersion (1637-1658) in prose and warfare, and show the same gift.

Milton also had a mediæval side to his brain as the *History of Britain* shows.

The heroic theme, which he had resolved from his youth up to celebrate, at last, after many hesitations, proved to be the fall of man. This, for one of his creed and for the audience he de-

sired, was the greatest theme of all. Its scene was the Ptolemaic universe with the Christian heaven and hell inserted. The subject and the general span of the action went back to the popular mystery play; and Milton at first planned out *Paradise Lost* as such a play. But according to the current theory the epic, not the drama, was the noblest form of verse, and feeling where his power lay he adopted the epic. The subject, therefore, was partly medieval, partly Protestant, for Milton was a true Protestant. But the ordering and presentment with their overture, their interpolated episodes or narratives, their journeys between Olympus, Earth and hell invocations, set similes, battles and divine thunderbolts are those of the classical epic.

Had Milton shared the free thought, as well as the scholarship, of the Renaissance, the poem could never have existed. Whatever Milton may fail to be, his heroic writing is the permanent and absolute expression of something that in the English stock is inveterate.

The discord between Milton's doctrines and his sympathies in *Paradise Lost* (1667) has never escaped notice. The discord between his doctrine and his culture comes out in *Paradise Regained* (1671) when he has at once to reprobate and glorify Athens the "Mother of arts."

When he resumed poetry about 1658 he had nothing around him to help him as an artist in heroic language. Thus Milton went back, doubtless full of Greek and Latin memories, to Marlowe, Shakespeare, and others among the greater dramatists (including John Ford); and their tragic diction and measure are the half-hidden bases of his own.

The quick, pure impressions of Milton's youth and prime—possibly kept fresher by his blindness—are felt through the sometimes conventional setting; and for soliloquy and choric speech of a might unapproachable since Dante. But Milton remains by far the surest and greatest instrumentalist, outside the drama, on the English unrhymed line.

The Puritan spirit is the deep thing in Milton; all his culture only gives immortal form to its expression. The critics have instinctively felt that this is true; and that is why their political and religious prepossessions have nearly always colored, and perhaps must color, every judgment passed upon him.

DRAMA, 1580-1642.—We must now go back to drama, which lies behind Milton, and is the most individual product of all English Literature. The nascent drama of genius can be found in the "University wits," who flourished between 1580 and 1595, and the chief of whom are Lyly, Kyd, Peele, Green and Marlowe.

Shakespeare is not only the greatest but the earliest English dramatist who took humanity for his province. He was at first subdued in what he worked in, he probably served with Marlowe and others of the school at various stages in the composition of the three chronicle dramas finally entitled *Henry VI*.

But besides the high-superlative style that is common to them all, there runs through them the rhymed rhetoric with which Shakespeare dallied for some time; as well as the softer flute-notes and deeper undersong that fortells his later blank verse. In *Richard III*, Shakespeare first showed the intensity of his original power. But after a few years he swept out of Marlowe's orbit into his own. In *King John* the lyrical, epical, satirical and pathetic chords are all present, if they are scarcely harmonized. Meanwhile Lyly and Greene having displaced the uncouth comedy, Shakespeare learned all they had to teach, and enabled him to perfect his youthful, noble and gentle blank verse. This attained its utmost fineness in *Richard II*, and its full cordiality and beauty in the other plays that consummate this period (1590-1595); *A Midsummer Night's Dream*, *The Merchant of Venice* and one romantic tragedy, *Romeo and Juliet*.

Behind them lay the earlier and fainter romances with their chivalry and gaiety, *The Comedy of Errors*,

Love's Labours Lost and The Two Gentlemen of Verona. The Italian Renaissance is felt in the scenery and setting of these plays; the novella furnishes the story. Richard II and Shylock, Portia and Juliet, and Juliet's Nurse and Bottom are created.

In the succeeding histories (1597-1599) and the comedies of wit and romance (1599-1600), in which Shakespeare perfected his style for stately, pensive or boisterous themes.

Falstaff, the most popular as he is the wittiest of all imaginable comic persons, dominates as to their prose or lower world, the two parts of Henry IV, and its interlude or offshot, The Merry Wives of Windsor.

The play that celebrates Henry V is less a drama than a pageant; here the most indigenous form of art invented by the English Renaissance reaches its climax.

The histories are peopled by men and warriors, but in the "middle comedies," As You Like it, Much Ado, and Twelfth Night, the warriors are home at court, and women rule the scene, and Shakespeare's prose the medium of their talk has a finer grace and humor than ever before.

With the reign of James came Hamlet, Macbeth, Lear, Othello, with the three Roman plays (written at intervals and not together), and the two quasi-antique plays Troilus and Cressida, and Timon of Athens, form a body of drama apart from anything else in the world.

The Sonnets (published 1609) are full of far-wandering thoughts on truth and beauty and on good and evil. The story they reveal may be ranked with the stronger dramas like Troilus and Measure for Measure.

Shakespeare's last period, that of his tragic comedies, begins about 1608 with his contributions to Pericles, Prince of Tyre, The Winter's Tale, Cymbeline and The Tempest all move, after a series of crimes, calumnies or estrangements, to some final scene of enthralling beauty, where the lost reappear and love is recovered. To this end he chose the loose action and free atmosphere of

the Roman d'aventure, which had already been adopted by Beaumont and Fletcher.

The Encyclopedia Britannica says, "Shakespeare's throne rests on the foundation of three equal faculties. One is that of expression and versification; the next is the invention and presentation of human character in action; the third is the theatrical faculty. The writing of Dante may seem to us more steadily great and perfect, when we remember Shakespeare's conceits, his experiments, his haste and impatience in his long wrestle with tragic language, his not infrequent sheer infelicities. But Dante is always himself. He had not to find words for hundreds of imaginary persons. Balzac, again, may have created and exhibited as many types of mankind, but except in soul he is not a poet. Shakespeare is a supreme if not infallible poet. His verse, often of an antique simplicity, or of rich, harmonious, romantic perfection, is at other times strained and shattered, with what it tries to express, and attains beauty only through discord. He is also many persons in one; in his Sonnets he is even, it may be thought, himself. But he had furthermore to study a personality not of his own fancying—with something in it of Caliban of Dogberry and of Cleopatra—that of the audience in a playhouse. He belongs distinctly to the poets like Jonson and Massinger, who are true to their art as practical dramatist, not to the poets like Chapman whose works chance to be in the form of plays. Shakespeare's mastery of this art is approved now by every nation.

But apart from the skill that makes him eternally actable—the skill of raising, straining and relieving the suspense, and bringing it to such an ending as the theater will tolerate—he played upon every chord in his own hearers. He frankly enlisted Jew-hatred, Pope-hatred and France-hatred—he flattered the queen and celebrated the Union and stormed the house with his fanfare over the national soldier, Henry of Agincourt, and glorified Eng-

land, as in *Cymbeline*, to the last. But in deeper ways he is the chief of playwrights.

Unlike another master, Ibsen, he nearly always tells us, without emphasis, by the words and behaviour of his characters, which we are to love and hate, and when we are to love and when to hate those whom we can neither love nor hate wholly. Yet he is not to be bribed and deals to his character something of the same injustice or rough justice that is found in real life. His loyalty to life, as well as to the stage, puts the crown on his felicity and his fertility, and raises him to his solicitude of dramatic greatness."

The wealth of dramatic production is so great that only a broad classification is offered. George Chapman stands apart, nearest to the greatest in high austerity of sentiment and in the gracious gravity of his romantic love-comedies.

Thomas Dekker and Thomas Heywood are writers of all-work. Among dramatists of primarily tragic and somber temper, who in their best scenes recall the creator of *Angelo*, *Iago* and *Timon*, are Thomas Middleton (1570?-1627), John Webster, and Cyril Tourneur. The playwrights who may be broadly called romantic are Beaumont, Fletcher and Massinger. The three just named left a very large body of drama, tragic, comic and tragicomic.

There remain two writers, John Ford and James Shirley, who kept the higher traditions alive till the Puritan ordinance crushed the theatre in 1642.

PROSE FROM 1579-1660.—With all the unevenness of poetry, the sense of style, of a standard, is everywhere. The Elizabethan novel was always unhappily mannered, and is therefore dead. Thus the English novel was a minor passing form; the leisurely and amorous romance went on in the next century, owing largely to French influence and example.

In criticism, England may almost be counted with the minor Latin countries.

To defend the "truth" of poetry—which was identified with all inventive writing and not only with verse—poetry was saddled with the work of science and instruction. The real relation of tragedy to spiritual things, which is admittedly shown, however hard its definition, in Shakespeare's plays, no critic for centuries tried to fathom.

Richard Hooker's "*Laws of Ecclesiastical Polity*" (1594-1597), an accepted defense of the Anglican position against Geneva and Rome, is the first theological work of note in the English tongue. With Francis Bacon (1561-1626) English philosophy began its unbroken course and took its long delayed rank in Europe.

Above the vast body of pamphlets and disputatious writing that form the historian's material stands Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon's "*History of the Rebellion*," printed in 1702-1704, thirty years after his death. Clarendon's "*Life*," above all the picture of Falkland and his friends, is a personal record of the delightful sort in which England was thus far infertile. He is the last old master of prose, using and sustaining the long sinuous sentence.

A special outlying position belongs to the Authorized Version (1611) of the Bible, the late fruit of the long toil that had begun with Tyndale's, and, on the side of style, with the Wycliffite translations.

RESTORATION PERIOD.—The Restoration accompanied and quickened a speedier and greater change in letters than any political event in English history since the reign of Alfred, when prose itself was created. Dryden's prose is literature as it stands, and yet is talk, and yet again is mysteriously better than talk. The critical writings of John Dennis are but a sincere application of the rules and canons that were now becoming conventional. Rymer, though not so despicable as Macaulay said, is still more depressing than Dennis; and for any critic at once so free, so generous and so sure as Dryden we wait in vain for a century.

Another and far nobler variety of

vernacular prose is found in the Puritans, Baxter and Howe had the English Bible behind them.

Richard Baxter is best remembered by those of his own fold for his "Saints Everlasting Rest" (1650); John Howe for his evangelical apologies "The Living Temple of God" (1675); John Bunyan, the least instructed of all, is their only born artist. The Pilgrim's Progress first appeared in 1678.

The transition from the older to the newer poetry was not abrupt. The poems of John Oldham and Andrew Marvell belong to both periods.

In poetry, in prose, and to some extent in drama, John Dryden, the creature of his time, is the master of its expression. Dryden was counted near Shakespeare and Milton.

Thomas Otway and Nathaniel Lee, both of whom generally used blank verse, are the tragic writers of note, children indeed of the extreme old age of the drama.

Restoration comedy at first followed Jonson, whom it was easy to try and imitate; Shadwell and Wilson, whose works are a museum for the social antiquary, photographed the humor of the town. Dryden's many comedies often show his more boisterous and blatant, rarely his finer qualities. The society depicted by William Wycherly, the one comic dramatist of power between Massinger and Congreve, at first seems hardly human; but his energy is skilful and faithful as well as brutal.

THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.—The charms of the eighteenth century English literature, as it happens, are essentially of a rational, social and translatable kind. And in this respect the eighteenth century is a veritable index-museum of English prose. At the outset of the new century the two chief architects of public opinion were undoubtedly John Locke and Joseph Addison. Dr. John Arbuthnot (1667-1735) may be described as an understudy of Swift on the whimsical side.

The government no longer sought to strangle the press. It could generally be turned satisfactorily and at the worst could always be temporarily muzzled.

The pensions hitherto devoted to men of genius were diverted under Walpole to spies and journalists.

The new trade of writing was represented most perfectly by Daniel Defoe (1660-1731). He was the first and cleverest of all descriptive reporters. His greatest piece of work was "Robinson Crusoe."

To pretend that the poetic heart of the eighteenth century was Popean is nothing short of extravagance. Alexander Pope's best work is contained in the "Satires and Epistles." He was flattered by imitation to an extent which threatened to throw the school of poetry which he represented into permanent discredit.

There were a number of true poets in the second and third quarters of the century to whom all credit is due as pioneers and preceptors of the romantic movement under the depressing conditions to which innovators in poetry are commonly subject. Four of them were mentally deranged (Collins, Smart, Cowper, Blake), while Gray was a hermit, and Shenstone and Thomson the most indolent of recluses. Probably the most original and famous of the literary grouping of the eighteenth century is that of its proto-novelists Richardson, Fielding, Smollett and Sterne.

Apart from the novelists, the middle period of the eighteenth century is strong in prose writers. These include Dr. Johnson, Oliver Goldsmith, Lord Chesterfield and Horace Walpole.

The evolution of a normal status for the author was aided by the definition of copyright and gradual extinction of piracy.

It was not until the third quarter of the eighteenth century that English literature freed itself from the imputation of lagging hopelessly behind France, Italy and Germany in the serious work of historical reconstruction. Hume published the first volume of his "History of England" in 1754.

From 1660 to 1760 the English mind was still much occupied in shaking off the last traces of feudality. The attempt of the Young Chevalier in 1745

was a complete anachronism. Then men began to describe as "grand and picturesque" scenery hitherto summarized as "barren mountains covered with mist." Goldsmith echoed some of his ideas in "The Deserted Village." The great masters of verse in Britain during this period were the three very disparate figures of William Cowper, William Blake and Robert Burns.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.—The most original vein in the nineteenth century was supplied by the Wordsworth group, the first manifesto of which appeared in the "Lyrical Ballads" of 1798.

Coleridge at his best was inspired by the supreme poetic gifts of passion, imagination, simplicity and mystery, combining form and color, sound and verse. Coleridge's more delicate sensibility to the older notes of that more musical era in English poetry which precedes the age of Dryden and Pope was due in no small measure to the luminous yet subtle intuitions of his friend Charles Lamb. Lamb's aim was to discover the mystery, the folk-seed and the old world element, latent, in so much of the finer ancient poetry and implicit in so much of the new.

The romantic poems of Scott (*Lay of the Last Minstrel*, *Marmion*, *Lady of the Lake*, etc.) were popular because they were in sympathy with the return (now strongly pronounced) of the European mind towards chivalry, feudalism and medieval spirit. The works of the Renaissance were no longer praised; its art was held to be imitative or debased. The naivete and spontaneity, real or imagined, of the "ages of faith" seemed incalculably better than the finesse and self-consciousness of modern times. Working this vein somewhat too long, Scott was at last out-shown in it by Byron.

In Scott the various lines of the eighteenth century conservatism and nineteenth century romantic revival most wonderfully converge. His intense feeling for Long Ago made him a romantic almost from the cradle. The master faculties of history and humor made a strong conservation of

him. This sentiment made Scott a victorious pioneer of a Romantic movement all over Europe.

In the year of Queen Victoria's accession most of the great writers of the early part of the century were silent. The principal authors who belong to the Victorian Era are Laudor, Bulwer, Marryat and Hallam. The significant work of Tennyson, the Brownings, Dickens, Thackeray, George Eliot, Darwin, Ruskin, Macaulay—the work of these writers may be termed conclusively Victorian.

Society had no difficulty in responding to the summons of its literary leaders. The great novelists of the early Victorian days were aristocratic and democratic at once.

The novelists to a certain extent created their own method like the great dramatists.

Both Dickens and Thackeray write as if they were almost entirely innocent of the existence of sexual vice. Dickens great works, excepting "*David Copperfield*" and "*Great Expectations*," had all appeared when Thackeray made his mark in 1848 with "*Vanity Fair*," and Thackeray follows most of his predecessor's conventions, including his conventional religion, ethics and politics.

The death of Carlyle and George Eliot in 1881 make a starting point for the new school of historians, novelists, critics and biographers.

History in the hands of Macaulay, Buckle and Carlyle had been occupied mainly with the bias and tendency of change.

The novel since 1881 has pursued a course curiously analogous to that of historical writing. Supported as it was by masters of the old régime such as Meredith and Hardy, the type seemed securely anchored to the old formulas and the old ways. In reality, however, many of these popular workers were really moribund and the novel was being honeycombed by French influence.

TWENTIETH CENTURY CHANGES.—By 1895 English literature had become a subject of regular instruction for a special degree at most of the univer-

sities, both in England and America. Books and apparatus for reading have multiplied in proportion.

Some hold to the innate and essential aristocracy of literature; others that it is bound to develop on the popular side. But to predict the direction of change in literature is even more futile than to predict the direction of change in human history, for of all factors of history, literature, if one of the most permanent, is also one of the least calculable.

AMERICAN.

The earliest books which are commonly described as the beginnings of American literature were written by men born and bred in England.

John Smith (1579-1631) wrote the first of these, "A True Relation of Such Occurrences and Accidents of Note as Hath Happened in Virginia" (1608), and he later added other accounts of the country of the north. William Strachey, a Virginian official, of whom little is known, described (1610) the shipwreck of Sir Thomas Gates on the Bermudas, which is believed to have yielded Shakespeare suggestions for "The Tempest." These are characteristic works of the earliest period. Each settlement in turn, as it came into prominence or provoked curiosity, found its geographer or annalist, and here and there sporadic pens essayed some practical topic.

From the beginning of New England, owing to the character of its people and its ecclesiastical rule, was the chief seat of the early literature, and held a position apart from the other colonies as a community characterized by an intellectual life. There the first printing press was set up, the first college founded, and an abundant literature was produced. The close of the seventeenth century shows literature still unchanged in its main position as the special concern of the leaders of the state.

The people were a hard-faring folk; their life was in religion soberly practiced and intensely felt. They were a people of one book—the Bible. For

them, it was in the place of higher literature. In John Wise (1652-1725) a precursor of the Revolution is felt. It was in another sphere the Puritanism in New England was to reach its height in the brilliant personality of Jonathan Edwards (1703-1758). The works upon which his fame is founded are "Treatise Concerning the Religious Affections" (1746), "On the Freedom of the Will" (1754). In him New England idealism has come the birth.

The secularization of life in New England was incidental to colonial growth. The affairs of the world had definitely obtained the upper hand.

The new spirit found its representative in the great figure of Benjamin Franklin (1706-1790). Practical works, such as almanacs, were plentiful and it is characteristic that Franklin's name is, in literature, first associated with "Poor Richard's Almanack" (1732).

The literature of the eighteenth century, outside of New England, continued to be constituted of works of explorations, descriptions, colonial affairs, with some sprinkling of crude science.

The more refined forms of literature also began to receive intelligent attention toward the close of the period.

The inspiration of the spirit of nationality was first felt in poetry by Philip Freneau (1752-1832), whose "Poems" (1786) marked the best poetical achievement up to this time. Literature, in the sense of the printed work, has had a great career in America, as the vehicle of use, books, journals, literary communications, educational works and libraries have filled the land, nowhere has the power of printed word ever been so great, nowhere has the man of literary genius ever had so broad an opportunity to affect the minds of men contemporaneously.

American literature first began to exist for the larger world in the persons of Washington Irving (1785-1859) and James Fenimore Cooper (1789-1851). The "Sketch Book" (1819) was the first to obtain a similar

vogue on the continent. The fame of both authors is associated with New York, and that city took the first place as the center of literature of the period.

A third writer, William Cullen Bryant (1794-1878), is associated with them, and though he announced his poetic talent precociously by "Thanatopsis" (1807), his "Poems" (1832) were the basis of his true fame.

American romanticism thus began with these writers, who gave it characterization after all by only a few simple traits. In all the literature by these writers there was little complexity, and there was no strangeness in the personalities. Simplicity and plainness characterized all three; they were simple American gentlemen. They brought a new stage of American life with freshness of power, an element of ideal loftiness and much literary charm.

The association of American literature with the periodical press is the most important trait to be observed. Magazines in various degrees of importance sprang up in succession to the earlier imitations of English eighteenth century periodicals, which abounded at the beginning of the century. Philadelphia was especially distinguished by an early fertility in magazines, which later reached a great circulation.

The most prominent figure in the magazine world at this time was Edgar Allan Poe (1809-1849).

What most distinguished literature in New England from that to the west and south was its connection with religion and scholarship, neither of which elements was strong in the literature that has been described.

Unitarianism, which was the form in which the old Puritanism dissolved in the cultivated class, came in with the beginning of the century, and found its representative in the gentle character of William Ellery Channing (1780-1842) who has remained its chief apostle.

The definite moment of the appearance of New England in literature in the true sense was marked by Ralph

Waldo Emerson's (1803-1882) "Nature" (1836), Nathaniel Hawthorne's (1804-1864) "Twice-Told Tales" (1837), and Henry Wadsworth Longfellow's (1807-1882) "Voices of the Night" (1839).

Of this group of men Longfellow is the most national figure, and from the point of view of literary history the most significant by virtue of what he contributed to American romanticism in the large.

Three other names, John Greenleaf Whittier (1807-1892), Oliver Wendell Holmes (1809-1894), James Russell Lowell (1819-1891), complete the group of the greater writers of New England.

The literary life of Boston was most distinguished in the field of history. The writers of history were George Bancroft, John Gorham Palfrey (1796-1881), author of "The History of New England" (1858); William Hickling Prescott (1796-1859), whose field was Spanish history; John Lathrop Motley (1814-1877), whose attention was given to Dutch history. Oratory also flourished in Daniel Webster (1782-1852), Edward Everett (1794-1865), Wendell Phillips (1811-1884), and Robert Charles Winthrop (1809-1894), also Henry Clay (1777-1852) of Virginia and John Caldwell Calhoun (1782-1850) of South Carolina. The single memorable novel of the period was Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe's (1811-1896) "Uncle Tom's Cabin" (1852), which had a world-wide vogue. This literature, blending with what was produced to the south and west, became a predominant share of what has been nationally accepted as standard American literature.

The greater writers had in general already done their characteristic work (1861), and though the survivors continued to produce till toward the close of the century, their works contained no new element and were at most melior fruits of age.

In poetry the literary tradition was continued in Boston by Thomas Bailey Aldrich (1836-1907), essentially a

and member of Congress, he was sent to school at Albany and at New Haven, and entered Yale College in his fourteenth year, remaining for some time the youngest student on rolls. Three years afterwards he joined the United States Navy; but after making a voyage or two in a merchant vessel, to perfect himself in seamanship, and obtaining his lieutenancy, he married and resigned his commission (1811). He settled in Westchester county, New York, the "Neutral Ground" of his earliest American romance, and produced anonymously (1820) his first book, *Precaution*, a novel of the fashionable school. This was followed (1821) by *The Spy*, which was very successful at the date of issue; *The Pioneers* (1823), the first of the "Leatherstocking" series, and *The Pilot* (1824), a bold and dashing sea-story. The next was *Lionel Lincoln* (1825), a feeble and unattractive work; and this was succeeded in 1826 by the famous *Last of the Mohicans*, a book that is often quoted as its author's masterpiece.

Quitting America for Europe he published at Paris *The Prairie* (1826), the best of his books in nearly all respects, and *The Red Rover* (1828), by no means his worst.

At this period the unequal and uncertain talent of Cooper would seem to have been at its best. These excellent novels were, however, succeeded by one very inferior, *The Wept of Wish-ton-Wish* (1829); by *The Notions of a Traveling Bachelor* (1828), an uninteresting book; and by *The Waterwitch* (1820), one of the poorest of his many sea-stories. In 1830 he entered the lists as a party writer, defending in a series of letters to the *National*, a Parisian journal, the United States against a string of charges brought against them by the *Revue Britannique*; and for the rest of his life he continued skirmishing in print, sometimes for the national interest, sometimes for that of the individual, and not infrequently for both at once. This opportunity of making a political confession of faith appears not only to

have fortified him in his own convictions, but to have inspired him with the idea of imposing them on the public through the medium of his art. His next three novels, *The Bravo* (1831), *The Hudenmauer* (1832) and *The Headsman, or the Abbaye of Vigneron* (1833), were designed to exalt the people at the expense of the aristocracy. Of these the first is by no means a bad story, but the others are among the dullest ever written; all were widely read on both sides of the Atlantic.

In 1833 Cooper returned to America and immediately published *A Letter to My Countrymen*, in which he gave his own version of the controversy he had been engaged in, and passed some sharp censure on his compatriots for their share in it. This attack he followed up with *The Monikins* (1835) and *The American Democrat* (1835); with several sets of notes on his travels and experiences in Europe, among which may be remarked his *England* (1837), in three volumes, a burst of vanity and ill-temper; and with *Homeward Bound and Home as Found* (1838), noticeable as containing a highly idealized portrait of himself. All these books tended to increase the ill-feeling between author and public; the Whig press was virulent and scandalous in its comments, and Cooper plunged into a series of actions for libel. Victorious in all of them, he returned to his old occupation with something of his old vigor and success.

A History of the Navy of the United States (1839), supplemented (1846) by a set of *Lives of Distinguished American Naval Officers*, was succeeded by *The Pathfinder* (1840), a good "Leatherstocking" novel; by *Mercedes of Castile* (1840); *The Deerslayer* (1841); by *The Two Admirals* and by *Wing and Wing* (1842); by *Wyandotté*, *The History of a Pocket Handkerchief*, and *Ned Myers* (1843); and by *Afloat and Ashore, or the Adventures of Miles Wallingford* (1844).

From pure fiction, however, he turned again to the combination of art and controversy in which he had achieved distinction, and in the two

Littlepage Manuscripts (1845-1846) he fought with a great deal of vigor. His next novel was *The Crater on Vulcan's Peak* (1847), in which he attempted to introduce supernatural machinery with indifferent success; and this was succeeded by *Oak Openings* and *Jack Tier* (1848), the latter a curious rifacimento of *The Red Rover*; by *The Sea Lions* (1849), and finally by *The Ways of the Hour* (1850), another novel with a purpose, and his last book. He died of dropsy on the 14th of September, 1851, at Cooperstown, New York. His daughter, Susan Fenimore Cooper (1813-1894), was known as an author and philanthropist.

Cooper was certainly one of the most popular authors that have ever written. His stories have been translated into nearly all the languages of Europe and into some of those of Asia. Balzac admired him greatly, but with discrimination; Victor Hugo pronounced him greater than the great master of modern romance, and this verdict was echoed by a multitude of inferior readers who were satisfied with no title for their favorite less than that of the "American Scott."

His literary training was inadequate; his vocabulary is limited and his style awkward and pretentious; and he had a fondness for moralizing tritely and obviously, which mars his best passages. In point of conception, each of his three and thirty novels is either absolutely good or is possessed of a certain amount of merit; but hitches occur in all, so that every one of them is remarkable rather in its episodes than as a whole.

WASHINGTON IRVING. 1783-1859.

Irving, Washington (1783-1859), American man of letters, was born at New York on the 3rd of April, 1783. Both his parents were immigrants from Great Britain, his father, originally an officer in the merchant service, but at the time of Irving's birth a considerable merchant, having come from the Orkneys, and his mother from Falmouth.

Irving was intended for the legal profession, but his studies were interrupted by an illness necessitating a voyage to Europe, in the course of which he proceeded as far as Rome, and made the acquaintance of Washington Allston. He was called to the bar upon his return, but made little effort to practice, preferring to amuse himself with literary ventures. The first of these of any importance, a satirical miscellany entitled *Salmagundi, or the Whim-Whams and Opinions of Launcelot Langstaff and Others*, written in conjunction with his brother William and J. K. Paulding gave ample proof of his talents as a humorist. These were still more conspicuously displayed in his next attempt, *A History of New York from the Beginning of the World to the End of the Dutch Dynasty*, by "Dudrich Knickerbocker" (2 vols., New York, 1809). The satire of *Salmagundi* had been principally local, and the original design of "Knickerbocker's" *History* was only to burlesque a pretentious desquisition on the history of the city in a guide book by Dr. Samuel Mitchell. The idea expanded as Irving proceeded, and he ended by not merely satirizing the pedantry of local antiquaries, but by creating a distinct literary type out of the solid Dutch burgher whose phlegm had long been an object of ridicule to the mercurial Americans. Though far from the most finished of Irving's productions, "Knickerbocker" manifests the most original power and is the most genuinely national in its quaintness and drollery. The very tardiness and prolixity of the story are skilfully made to heighten the humorous effect.

Upon the death of his father, Irving had become a sleeping partner in his brother's commercial house, a branch of which was established at Liverpool. This, combined with the restoration of peace, induced him to visit England in 1815, when he found the stability of the firm seriously compromised. After some years of ineffectual struggle it became bankrupt. This misfortune compelled Irving to resume his pen as

a means of subsistence. His reputation had preceded him to England, and the curiosity naturally excited by the then unwonted apparition of a successful American author procured him admission into the highest literary circles, where his popularity was ensured by his amiable temper and polished manners. As an American, moreover, he stood aloof from the political and literary disputes which then divided England. Campbell, Jeffry, Moore, Scott, were counted among his friends, and the last-named zealously recommended him to the publisher Murray, who after at first refusing, consented (1820) to bring out *The Sketch Book of Geoffrey Crayon, Gent* (7 pts., New York, 1819-1820). The most interesting part of this work is the description of an English Christmas, which displays a delicate humor not unworthy of the writer's evident model Addison. Some stories and sketches on American themes contribute to give it variety; of these *Rip van Winkle* is the most remarkable. It speedily obtained the greatest success on both sides of the Atlantic.

Bracebridge Hall, or the Humorist (2 vols., New York), a work purely English in subject, followed in 1822, and showed to what account the American observer had turned his experience of English country life. The humor is nevertheless much more English than American. *Tales of a Traveler* (4 pts.) appeared in 1824 at Philadelphia, and Irving, now in comfortable circumstances, determined to enlarge his sphere of observation by a journey on the continent. After a long course of travel he settled down at Madrid in the house of the American consul Rich. His intention at the time was to translate the *Coleccion de los Viages y Des-ubrimientos* (Madrid, 1825-1837) of Martin Fernandez de Navarreti; finding, however, that this was rather a collection of valuable materials than a systematic biography, he determined to compose a biography of his own by its assistance, supplemented by independent researches in the Spanish archives. His *History of the Life and Voyages*

of Christopher Columbus (London, 4 vols.) appeared in 1828, and obtained a merited success. The *Voyages and Discoveries of the Companion of Columbus* (Philadelphia, 1831) followed; and a prolonged residence in the south of Spain gave Irving materials for two highly picturesque books, *A Chronicle of the Conquest of Granada from the mss. of (an imaginary) Fray Antonio Agapida* (2 vols., Philadelphia, 1829), and *The Alhambra: a series of tales and sketches of the Moors and Spaniards* (2 vols., Philadelphia, 1832). Previous to their appearance he had been appointed secretary to the embassy at London, an office as purely complimentary to his literary ability as the legal degree which he about the same time received from the university of Oxford.

Returning to the United States in 1832, after seventeen years' absence, he found his name a household word, and himself universally honored as the first American who had won for his country recognition on equal terms in the literary republic. After the rush of fêtes and public compliments had subsided, he undertook a tour in the western prairies, and returning to the neighborhood of New York built for himself a delightful retreat on the Hudson, to which he gave the name of "Sunnyside." His acquaintance with the New York millionaire John Jacob Astor prompted his next important work—*Astoria* (2 vols., Philadelphia, 1836), a history of the settlement founded by Astor in Oregon, deduced with singular literary ability from dry commercial records, and, without labored attempts at word-painting, evincing a remarkable faculty for bringing scenes and incidents vividly before the eye. The *Adventures of Captain Bonneville* (London and Philadelphia, 1837), based upon the unpublished memoirs of a veteran explorer, was another work of the same class. In 1842 Irving was appointed Ambassador to Spain. He spent four years in the country, without this time turning his residence to literary account; and it was not until two years after his

return that Forster's *Life of Goldsmith*, by reminding him of a slight essay of his own which he now thought too imperfect by comparison to be included among his collected writings, stimulated him to the production of his *Life of Oliver Goldsmith*, with *Selections from his Writings* (2 vols., New York, 1849). Without pretensions to original research, the book displays an admirable talent for employing existing material to the best effect. The same may be said of *The Lives of Mahomet and his Successors* (New York, 2 vols., 1849-1850). Here as elsewhere Irving correctly discriminated the biographer's province from the historian's, and leaving the philosophical investigation of cause and effect to writers of Gibbon's calibre, applied himself to represent the picturesque features of the age as embodied in the actions and utterances of its most characteristic representatives. His last days were devoted to his *Life of George Washington* (5 vols., 1855-1859, New York and London), undertaken in an enthusiastic spirit, but which the author found exhausting and his readers tame. His genius required a more poetical theme, and indeed the biographer of Washington must be at least a potential soldier and statesman. Irving just lived to complete this work, dying of heart disease at Sunnyside, on the 28th of November, 1859.

Although one of the chief ornaments of American literature, Irving is not characteristically American. But he is one of the few authors of his period who really manifest traces of a vein of national peculiarity which might under other circumstances have been productive. "Knickerbocker's" *History of New York*, although the air of mock solemnity which constitutes the staple of its humor is peculiar to no literature, manifests nevertheless a power of reproducing a distinct national type. Had circumstances taken Irving to the West, and placed him amid a society teeming with quaint and genial eccentricity, he might possibly have been the first western humorist, and his humor might have gained in depth and rich-

ness. In England, on the other hand, everything encouraged his natural fastidiousness. He became a refined writer, but by no means a robust one. His biographies bear the stamp of genuine artistic intelligence, equally remote from complication and disquisition. In execution they are almost faultless; the narrative is easy, the style pellucid and the writer's judgment nearly always in accordance with the general verdict of history. Without ostentation or affectation, he was exquisite in all things, a mirror of loyalty, courtesy and good taste in all his literary connections, and exemplary in all the relations of domestic life. He never married, remaining true to the memory of an early attachment blighted by death. (*Encyclopedia Britannica*.)

JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER. 1807-1892.

John Greenleaf Whittier was born at Haverhill, Mass., in 1807. While a boy he worked with his father on a farm, sometimes assisting during the winter months in making shoes. His education was obtained in the schools of his native village. On becoming of age he became editor of a paper, and from that time devoted himself to literature. He never married. His residence, during the greater part of his life, was at Amesbury, Mass., where he died in 1893, in the enjoyment of the love and veneration of all his countrymen.

Whittier has written very much both in prose and poetry, but is chiefly distinguished as a poet. Among his most popular poems are *Maud Miller*, *Barbara Frietchie*, *My Psalm*, *My Playmate*, *Snowbound*, *Among the Hills*, *A Tent on the Beach*, *Mabel Martin* (*The Witch's Daughter* revised) and *Centennial Hymn*. His principal prose works are *Old Portraits* and *Modern Sketches*, and *Literary Recreations*.

In Whittier's poems we find masculine vigor combined with womanly tenderness; a fierce hatred of wrong, with an all-embracing charity and love. In his anti-slavery and patriotic lyrics, "he seems," as Whipple says, "to pour out

his blood with his lines," so terrible is his energy; but in most of his poems, especially his later ones, we find only the calm earnestness of the inquirer after truth, combined with the sublime faith and prayerful resignation of the true Christian. He lacks Longfellow's wide and elegant culture, but surpasses him in real poetic genius, and ranks next to him in popularity.

HENRY W. LONGFELLOW.
1807-1882.

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, the most popular of our poets, was born at Portland, Maine, in 1807. He graduated at Bowdoin College in the class of 1825, and afterwards, at various times, further enriched his mind by European study and travel. For twenty-five years (1829-1854) he filled a professorship in college, six years in Bowdoin and nineteen years in Harvard.

He lived at Cambridge, Mass., in an old house once occupied by General Washington as his headquarters. To this fact he alludes in his poem, *To a Child*, in which he says:

"Once, ah, once within these walls
One whom memory oft recalls,
The father of his country dwelt."

Professor Longfellow was twice married. His first wife died at Rotterdam, Holland, in 1835; his second wife was burned to death in 1861, her clothes having accidentally taken fire while sealing an envelope at the flame of a taper.

The following are some of Mr. Longfellow's most popular poems: *Evangeline*, *Tales of a Wayside Inn*, *Courtship of Miles Standish*, *The Building of the Ship*, *The Old Clock on the Stairs*, *Stanza Filomena*, *The Bridge*, *The Builders*, *Resignation*, *The Day is Done*, *The Hanging of the Crane*, and *Morturi Salutamus*.

He also published three popular prose works—*Outre Mer*, *Hyperion*, and *Kavanagh*—and an excellent poetical Translation of Dante, with copious notes and commentaries.

Longfellow's chief characteristics are simplicity, grace and refinement. Of imagination and passion he has but little. He does not often startle his readers by the utterance of a new and striking thought, but he perpetually charms them by presenting the ordinary sentiments of humanity in a new and more attractive garb. He died March 24, 1882.

WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT.
1794-1878.

William Cullen Bryant, American poet and journalist, was born at Cummington, a farming village in the Hampshire hills of western Massachusetts, on the 3d of November, 1794. He was the second son of Peter Bryant, a physician and surgeon of no mean scholarship, refined in all his tastes and a public-spirited citizen. Peter Bryant was the great grandson of Stephen Bryant, an English Puritan emigrant to Massachusetts Bay about the year 1632. The poet's mother, Sarah Snell, was a descendant of the "Mayflower" pilgrims. He was born in the log farmhouse built by his father two years before, at the edge of the pioneer settlement among those boundless forests, the deep stamp of whose beauty and majesty he carried on his own mind and reprinted upon the emotions of others throughout a long life spent mainly amid the activities of his country's growing metropolis. By parentage, by religious and political faith, and by hardness of fortune, the earliest of important American poets was appointed to a life typical of the first century of American national existence, and of the strongest single racial element by which this nation's social order has been moulded and promoted. Rated by the amount of time given to school books and college classes, Bryant's early education was limited. After the village school he received a year of exceptionally good training in Latin under his mother's brother, the Rev. Dr. Thomas Snell, of Brookfield, followed by a year of Greek under the Rev. Moses Hal-

lock, of Plainfield, and at sixteen entered the sophomore class of Williams College. Here he was an apt and diligent student through two sessions, and then, owing to the straitness of his father's means, he withdrew without graduating, and studied classics and mathematics for a year in the vain hope that his father might be able to send him to Yale College. But the length of his school and college days would be a very misleading measure of his training. He was endowed by nature with many of those traits which it is often only the final triumph of books and institutional regimen to establish in character.

On abandoning his hope to enter Yale, the poet turned to and pursued under private guidance at Worthington and Bridgewater, the study of law. At twenty-one he was admitted to the bar, opened an office in Plainfield, presently withdrew from there, and at Great Barrington settled for nine years in the attorney's calling with an aversion for it which he never lost. His first book of verse, *The Embargo, or Sketches of the Times; A Satire by a Youth of Thirteen* had been printed at Boston in 1808.

At the age of twenty-six Bryant Married at Great Barrington, Miss Frances Fairchild, with whom he enjoyed a happy union until her death nearly half a century later. In the year of his marriage he suffered the bereavement of his father's death. In 1825 he ventured to lay aside the practice of law and removed to New York City to assume a literary editorship. Here for some months his fortunes were precarious, until in the next year he became one of the editors of the *Evening Post*. In the third year following, 1829, he came into undivided editorial control, and became also chief owner. He enjoyed his occupation, fulfilling its duties with an unflagging devotion to every worthy public interest till he died in 1878, in the month of his choice, as indicated in his beautiful poem entitled "June."

His vigorous and stately mind found voice in one of the most admirable

models of journalistic style known in America. He was founder of a distinct school of American journalism, characterized by an equal fidelity and temperance, energy and dignity. Though it is as a poet that he most emphatically belongs to history. His renown as a poet antedated the appearance of his first volume by some four or five years. "American poetry," says Richard Henry Stoddard, "may be said to have commenced in 1817 with (Bryant's) 'Thanatopsis' and 'Inscription for the entrance of a wood.'"

"Thanatopsis" had been written at Cummington in the poet's eighteenth year, and was printed in 1817 in the *North American Review*; the "Inscription" was written in his nineteenth, and in his twenty-first, while a student of law at Bridgewater, he had composed his lines "To a Water-fowl," whose exquisite beauty and exalted faith his own pen rarely, if ever, surpassed. The poet's gift for language made him a frequent translator, and among his works of this sort his rendering of Homer is the most noted and most valuable. But the muse of Bryant, at her very best, is always brief-spoken and an interpreter initially of his own spirit. Much of the charm of his poems lies in the equal purity of their artistic and their moral beauty. On the ethical side they are more than pure, they are—it may be said without derogation—Puritan.

His deepest emotions are so dominated by a perfect self-restraint that they never rise (or stoop) to transports. For merriment he has a generous smile, for sorrow a royal one; but the nearest he ever comes to mirth is in his dainty rhyme, "Robert of Lincoln," and the nearest to wail in those exquisite notes of grief for the loss of his young sister, "The Death of the Flowers." His rank is among the master poets of America, of whom he is historically the first.

OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES.
1800-1894.

Oliver Wendell Holmes, one of the most witty, original and brilliant writ-

ers of his period, was born in 1809. He was a graduate of Harvard College, and was for many years a medical lecturer in that institution. He died in 1894.

He was equally great in poetry and prose. His lyrics, such as *Union and Liberty*, *Old Ironsides*, *Welcome to the Nations*, etc., are among the most spirited and beautiful in the language; and his humorous poems such as *The One-Hoss Shay*, *My Aunt*, etc., have an irresistible quaintness and drollery, combined with that tender and kindly feeling which is always a characteristic of true humor. Some of his happiest efforts are the poems written for class reunions and other special occasions. Of these *The Boys and Bill* and *Joe* are good examples.

Dr. Holmes is not only one of the wittiest, but also one of the wisest of our writers. His works, particularly his prose works, present a succession of the most brilliant and original thoughts, which fill the mind of the reader with ever-recurring wonder and delight. The best of his prose works is the series of papers contributed to the *Atlantic Monthly*, under the title of *The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table*. These were followed by *The Professor at the Breakfast Table*, *Elsie Venner* (a novel), *The Guardian Angel* (a novel) and *The Poet at the Breakfast Table*.

NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE.

1804-1864.

Nathaniel Hawthorne, the rarest genius that America has produced, was born at Salem, Mass., in 1804, and graduated at Bowdoin College in 1825, in the same class with the poet Longfellow. He was for three years an officer in the Custom House at Salem, and for four years (during Pierce's administration) Consul at Liverpool. His home, for the last twenty years of his life, was at Concord, Mass., where he died in 1864.

Of his many works we name the following as among the best: *Twice-Told Tales*, *Mosses from an Old Manse*, *The*

Scarlet Letter, *The House of Seven Gables*, *The Blithedale Romance* and *The Marble Faun*. The first two are collections of sketches and tales, such as *A Rill from the Town Pump*, *The Celestian Railroad* (an allegory), *Little Annie's Ramble*, etc.

The Scarlet Letter is regarded as his masterpiece. In keen and subtle analysis, in patient, almost insensible development of plot, as well as in beauty of description, and purity and elegance of diction, it stands alone in American fiction, unapproached except by other works of the same great master. Hawthorne's special characteristics are his power of analyzing and developing the weird and mysterious, and of breathing a living soul into everything that he touched with the magic wand of his genius.

GEORGE BANCROFT.

1800-1891.

George Bancroft, a great historian and statesman, was born at Worcester, Mass., in 1800. He graduated at Harvard, and afterwards studied at Gottingen, Germany. He filled various offices under the general government—among them those of Secretary of the Navy, Minister to England and Minister to Germany,—and always with dignity and ability.

His great work is a *History of the United States*, a revised edition of which has been published in six volumes, octavo. He has exercised the most scrupulous care both as to facts and style, and his work is regarded as the standard history of our country. He resided during the latter part of his life in Washington, D. C., where he died in 1891.

WILLIAM H. PRESCOTT.

1796-1859.

William H. Prescott, one of our greatest historians, was born at Salem, Mass., in 1796; graduated at Harvard, and though nearly blind devoted himself to literary life.

His principal works are: Ferdinand and Isabella, Conquest of Mexico, Conquest of Peru, Robertson's Charles V (with original matter), Philip II, and a volume of Miscellanies.

Prescott had the genius to invest the dry facts of history with the charms of fiction; and yet he never sacrifices truth to the graces of style. He stands in the front rank of classical historians.

CIVIL GOVERNMENT

THE NATIONAL CONSTITUTION¹

Objects.

We the People of the United States,² in order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity,³ do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.

Legislative Powers.

SECTION 1. All legislative Powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.⁴

House of Representatives.

SECTION 2. The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members chosen every second Year by the People of the several States, and the Electors in each State shall have the Qualifications requisite for Electors of the most numerous Branch of the State Legislature.⁵

Qualifications of Representatives.

No Person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the Age of twenty-five Years, and been seven Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.⁶

Apportionment of Representatives.

Representatives and direct Taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective Numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a term of Years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other Persons.⁷ The actual Enumeration shall be made within three Years after the first Meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent Term of ten Years, in such Manner as they shall by Law direct. The Number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty Thousand;

¹ In 1853, the writer made a very careful copy of the Constitution of the United States, from the original in the State Department at Washington City, together with the autographs of the members of the Convention who signed it. In orthography, capital letters, and punctuation, the copy here given may be relied upon as correct, it having been subsequently carefully compared with a copy published by Mr. Hickey, in his useful little volume, entitled *The Constitution of the United States of America*, etc., and attested, on the 20th of July, 1846, by Nicholas P. Trist, Chief Clerk of the State Department.

² Previous to the Revolution, there were three forms of government in the Colonies, namely, *Charter*, *Proprietary*, and *Provincial*. The charter governments were Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island. They had power to make laws not inconsistent with those of England. The proprietary governments were Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Delaware. Their governors were appointed by their proprietors, and these and the proprietors usually made the laws. The provincial were New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. In these the governor and his council were appointed by the crown, and these, with chosen representatives of the people, made the laws.

The Union is older than the Constitution. It was formed in the first Continental Congress by the representatives of thirteen separate but not independent nor sovereign provinces, for they had ever been subject to the British crown. Then the inhabitants of those colonies were solemnly leagued as one people, and two years later they declared themselves collectively independent of Great Britain, and recognized the supremacy of the Continental Congress as a central government. See Curtis's *History of the Constitution*, i. 39, 40. The plan of

independent State governments then adopted having failed, a national one was formed, and the framers of the Constitution, to give emphasis to the fact, said in the preamble of the instrument, "We the people of the *United States*," instead of "We the people of Massachusetts, New York," etcetera. So argued the Supreme Court. See *Wheaton's S. C. Reports*, i. 304.

³ Six objects, it is seen, were to be obtained, each having a national breadth of purpose.

⁴ The members of the House of Representatives are elected to seats therein for two years and they hold two regular sessions or sittings during that time. Each full term is called a Congress. Senators are elected by the State legislatures, to serve for six years.

⁵ There is a Senate and House of Representatives, or Assembly, in each State. Any person qualified to vote for a member of his State Assembly, may vote for a member of the National House of Representatives.

⁶ A person born in a foreign country, may be elected a representative after he has been for seven years a citizen of the United States.

⁷ It has been decided that this does not restrict the power of imposing direct taxes, to States only. The Congress of the United States has power to do so, but only for the purpose of paying the national debts and providing for the national welfare. See Kent's *Commentaries on the Constitution*, abridged edition, page 330. Direct taxes had been laid three times by the National Congress, previous to the Great Civil War that broke out in 1861, namely, in 1798, 1813, and 1815. The "other persons" here mentioned were slaves. In making the apportionment, every five slaves were accounted three persons. The Thirteenth Amendment of the Constitution renders this sentence a dead letter.

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but each State shall have at Least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.⁸

Vacancies, How Filled.

When vacancies happen in the Representation from any State, the Executive Authority thereof shall issue Writs of Election to fill such Vacancies.

Speaker, How Appointed.

The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other Officers; and shall have the sole Power of Impeachment.

Number of Senators From Each State.

SECTION 3. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six Years; and each Senator shall have one Vote.⁹

Classification of Senators.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in Consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three Classes. The Seats of the Senators of the first Class shall be vacated at the Expiration of the Second Year, of the second Class at the Expiration of the fourth Year, and of the third Class at the Expiration of the sixth Year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year;¹⁰ and if Vacancies happen by Resignation or otherwise, during the Recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary Appointments until the next Meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such Vacancies.

⁸ The apportionment is made as soon as practicable after each enumeration of the inhabitants is completed. The ratio based on the census of 1790, was one Representative for every 33,000 persons. The ratio according to the census of 1870, was one for every 137,000 persons.

⁹ This gives perfect equality to the States, in one portion of the legislature branch of the Government. The small States of Rhode Island and Delaware have as much power in the National Senate as the large ones of New York and Ohio.

¹⁰ This is a wise provision. It leaves representatives of the people in that branch, at all times, familiar with the legislation thereof, and therefore more efficient than if an entirely new delegation should be chosen at the end of six years.

¹¹ This was to allow a foreign-born citizen to make himself familiar with our institutions, before he should be eligible to a seat in that highest legislative hall.

¹² He is not a representative of any State. By this arrangement, the equality of the States is preserved.

Qualification of Senators.

No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty Years, and been nine Years a Citizen of the United States,¹¹ and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

Presiding Officer of the Senate.

The Vice-President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.¹²

The Senate shall chose their other Officers,¹³ and also a President pro tempore, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the Office of President of the United States.

Senate a Court For Trial of Impeachments.

The Senate shall have the sole Power to try all Impeachments:¹⁴ When sitting for that Purpose, they shall be on Oath, or Affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief-Justice shall preside: and no Person shall be convicted without the Concurrence of two thirds of the Members present.

Judgment in Case of Conviction.

Judgment in Cases of Impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from Office, and Disqualification to hold and enjoy any Office of Honor, Trust, or Profit under the United States: but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to Indictment, Trial, Judgment, and Punishment, according to Law.¹⁵

Elections of Senators and Representatives.

SECTION 4. The Times, Places, and Manner of holding Elections for Senators and Representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by Law make or alter such Regulations, except as to the places of choosing Senators.¹⁶

¹³ Secretary, clerk, sergeant-at-arms, door-keeper, and postmaster.

¹⁴ The House of Representatives, it will be observed, accuse the alleged offender, and the Senate constitutes the court wherein he is tried.

¹⁵ This was a modification of the British Constitution, giving exclusive jurisdiction to the National Judiciary. In Great Britain, the House of Commons accuses, and the House of Lords (answering to our Senate) tries the offender. The latter is also invested with power to punish in every form known to the laws, by ordering the infliction of fines, imprisonments, forfeiture of goods, banishment, and death.

¹⁶ This provision was to prevent the mischief that might arise at a time of intense party excitement, when the very existence of the National Congress might be at the mercy of the State Legislatures. The place of choosing the Senators is where the State Legislatures shall be in session at the time.

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Meeting of Congress.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every Year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by Law appoint a different day.¹⁷

Organization of Congress.

SECTION 5. Each House shall be the Judge of the Elections, Returns, and Qualifications of its own Members, and a Majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do Business; but a small Number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the Attendance of absent Members, in such manner, and under such Penalties as each House may provide.

Rules of Proceeding.

Each House may determine the Rules of its Proceedings, punish its Members for disorderly Behavior, and, with the Concurrence of two thirds, expel a Member.

Journal of Congress.

Each House shall keep a Journal of its Proceedings, and from time to time publish the same,¹⁸ excepting such Parts as may in their Judgment require Secrecy;¹⁹ and the Yeas and Nays of the Members of either House on any question shall, at the Desire of one fifth of those Present, be entered on the Journal.²⁰

Adjournment of Congress.

Neither House, during the Session of Congress, shall, without the Consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other Place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.²¹

Compensation and Privileges of Members.

SECTION 6. The Senators and Representatives shall receive a Compensation for their Services, to be ascertained by Law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States.²²

They shall in all cases, except Treason, Felony, and Breach of the Peace, be privileged from Arrest during their Attendance at the Session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any Speech or Debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other place.²³

Plurality of Offices Prohibited.

No Senator or Representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil Office under the Authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the Emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no Person holding any office under the United States, shall be a Member of either House during his Continuance in office.²⁴

Bills, How Originated.

SECTION 7. All Bills for raising Revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with Amendments as on other Bills.²⁵

How Bills Become Laws.

Every Bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a Law, be presented to the President of the United States: if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his Objections, to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the Objections at large on their Journal, and proceed to reconsider it.²⁶ If, after such Reconsideration, two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the Bill, it shall be sent, together with the Objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a Law. But in all such Cases the Votes of both Houses shall be determined by Yeas and Nays, and the Names of the Persons

¹⁷ This secured an annual meeting of the National Legislature beyond the control of State legislation. The second, or last session of every Congress, expires at twelve o'clock at noon on the 4th of March.

¹⁸ The object is to preserve, for the use of the sovereign people, and make public for their benefit, every act of Congress.

¹⁹ There are occasions when the public good requires secret legislation, and a withholding from the people a knowledge of measures discussed and adopted in Congress, as in a time of war, of insurrection, or of very important diplomatic negotiations.

²⁰ The object of this is to make a permanent record of the votes of members, so that the constituents of each may know their action on important questions. It is a salutary regulation.

²¹ This is to prevent a majority, in either House, from interrupting, for more than three days, the legislation of Congress.

²² Formerly the members were paid a certain amount per day, with a specified amount for each mile traveled in going to and returning from the National capital. The present compensation is a fixed sum for each Congress, with mileage.

²³ This was to prevent the interruption of their duties, during the session of Congress, and to give them perfect freedom of speech.

²⁴ This serves as a check to the increase of the power of the executive over the legislative department of the Government, by the means of appointment to office. It prevents wide-spread political corruption. A person holding an office, when elected to Congress, is compelled to resign it before he can take his seat.

²⁵ The members of the House of Representatives are more immediately elected by the people, and are supposed to better understand the wishes and wants of their constituents, than those of the Senate. The Senate, being the representative of the equality of the States, stands as a check to legislation that might impose too heavy taxation on the smaller States.

²⁶ This power is given to the President to arrest hasty or unconstitutional legislation, and to operate as a check on the encroachment on the rights and powers of one department over another, by legislation. It is not absolute, as the context shows, as it may be set aside by a vote of two-thirds of the members of the Senate and House of Representatives, who passed it.

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voting for and against the Bill shall be entered on the Journal of each House respectively. If any Bill shall not be returned by the President within ten Days (Sunday excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the Same shall be a Law, in like Manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their Adjournment prevent its Return, in which Case it shall not be a Law.

Approval and Veto Powers of President.

Every Order, Resolution, or Vote to which the Concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment), shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the Same shall take Effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the Rules and Limitations prescribed in the Case of a Bill.²⁷

Powers Invested in Congress.

SECTION 8. The Congress shall have power—

To lay and collect Taxes, Duties, Imposts, and Excises; to pay the Debts and provide for the common Defence and general Welfare of the United States; but all Duties, Imposts, and Excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;²⁸

To borrow Money on the credit of the United States;²⁹

To regulate Commerce with foreign Nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;³⁰

To establish a uniform Rule of Naturalization,³¹ and uniform Laws on the subject of Bankruptcies³² throughout the United States;

To coin Money, regulate the Value thereof, and of foreign Coin, and fix the Standard of Weights and Measures;³³

To provide for the Punishment of counterfeiting the Securities and current Coin of the United States;

To establish Post Offices and Post Roads;

To promote the progress of Science and useful Arts, by securing for limited Times to Authors and Inventors the exclusive Right to their respective Writings and Discoveries;³⁴

To constitute Tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

To define and punish Piracies and Felonies committed on the high Seas, and Offences against the Law of Nations;³⁵

To declare War, grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal, and make Rules concerning Captures on Land and Water;

To raise and support Armies; but no Appropriation of Money to that use shall be for a longer Term than two Years;

To provide and maintain a Navy;

To make Rules for the Government and Regulation of the Land and Naval Forces;

To provide for the calling forth the Militia to execute the Laws of the Union, suppress Insurrections, and repel Invasions;

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the Militia, and for governing such Part of them as may be employed in the Service of the United States—reserving to the States respectively, the Appointment of the Officers, and the Authority of training the Militia according to the Discipline prescribed by Congress;³⁶

²⁷ This requirement is made that Congress may not pass, with the name of order, resolution, or vote, what, as a bill, the President has already vetoed, as his method of returning a bill, with his objections, is called.

²⁸ The power of Congress to lay and collect duties, etc., for national purposes, extends to the District of Columbia, and to the Territories of the United States, as well as to the States; but Congress is not bound to extend a direct tax to the District and Territories. The stipulation that the taxes, etc., shall be uniform throughout the United States, is to prevent favors being shown to one State or section of the Republic, and not to another.

²⁹ This was to enable the Government to provide for its expenses at a time of domestic insurrection or a foreign war, when the sources of revenue by taxation and impost might be obstructed.

³⁰ This power was lacking, under the *Articles of Confederation*. It is one of the most important powers delegated by the people to their representatives, for it involves national development and prosperity.

³¹ The power of naturalization was possessed by each State under the *Confederation*. There was such want of uniformity of laws on the subject, that confusion was already manifested, when the people, by the Constitution, vested the power exclusively in Congress. Thus a State is prohibited from discouraging emigration, or casting hindrances in the way of obtaining citizenship. By a decision of the Attorney-General of the Republic, every person born within its borders is entitled to the rights of citizenship. It is a birthright.

³² Since the adoption of the Constitution of the United States, a State has authority to pass a bankrupt law, provided such law does not impair the obligations of contracts within the meaning of the Constitution (Art. I., Sec. 10), and provided there be no act of Congress in force to establish a uniform system of bankruptcy conflicting with such law.

³³ This was to insure uniformity in the metallic currency of the Republic, and of weights and measures, for the benefit of the people in commercial operations.

³⁴ The first copy-right law was enacted in 1790, on the petition of David Ramsay, the historian, and others. A copy-right, or patent-right to an invention is given for a specified time. A copy-right is granted for twenty-eight years, and a renewal for fourteen years. Patents are granted for seventeen years, without the right of extension.

³⁵ Congress has power to provide for the punishment of offences committed by persons on board of an American ship, wherever that ship may be.

³⁶ Clauses eleven to sixteen inclusive, define the war powers of the Government, such as granting licenses to privateers, raising and supporting armed forces on land and sea, calling out the militia, etc. See Article II of the Amendments to this Constitution. These powers, used by the hand of an efficient and judicious Executive, are quite sufficient. The President cannot exercise any of them, until the power is given him by Congress, when he is bound by his oath to take care that all the laws shall be executed.

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To exercise exclusive Legislation in all Cases whatsoever, over such District (not exceeding ten Miles square) as may, by Session of particular States, and the Acceptance of Congress, become the Seat of the Government of the United States,³⁷ and to exercise like Authority over all Places purchased by the Consent of the Legislature of the State in which the Same shall be, for the Erection of Forts, Magazines, Arsenals, Dockyards, and other needful Buildings;— And

To make all Laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into Execution the foregoing Powers, and all other Powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any Department or Officer thereof.

Immigrants, How Admitted.

SECTION 9. The Migration or Importation of such Persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the Year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a Tax or Duty may be imposed on such Importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each Person.³⁸

Habeas Corpus.

The Privilege of the Writ of Habeas Corpus³⁹ shall not be suspended, unless when in Cases of Rebellion or Invasion the public Safety may require it.

Attainer.

No Bill of Attainer⁴⁰ or ex post Facto law shall be passed.⁴¹

Taxes.

No Capitation, or other direct, Tax shall be laid, unless in Proportion to the Census or Enumeration herein before directed to be taken.⁴²

No Tax or Duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

Regulations Regarding Duties.

No Preference shall be given by any Regulation of Commerce or Revenue to the Ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay Duties in another.⁴³

Money, How Drawn.

No Money shall be drawn from the Treasury, but in Consequence of Appropriations made by law; and a regular Statement and Account of the Receipts and Expenditures of all public Money shall be published from time to time.⁴⁴

Titles of Nobility.

No Title of Nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no Person holding any Office of Profit or Trust under them, shall, without the Consent of the Congress, accept of any Present, Emolument, Office, or Title, of any kind whatever, from any King, Prince, or Foreign State.⁴⁵

SECTION 10. No State shall enter into any Treaty, Alliance, or Confederation; grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal; coin Money; emit Bills of Credit; make any Thing but gold and silver Coin a Tender in Payment of Debts; pass any Bill of Attainer, ex post facto Law, or Law impairing the Obligation of Contracts, or grant any Title of Nobility.

No State shall, without the Consent of the Congress, lay any Imposts or Duties on Imports or Exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection Laws: and the net Produce of all Duties and Imposts, laid by any State on Imports or Exports, shall be for the Use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such Laws shall be subject to the Revision and Control of the Congress.

³⁷ Congress has authority to impose a direct tax on the District of Columbia, in proportion to the census directed by the Constitution to be taken.

³⁸ The object of this clause was to end the slave-trade, or the importation of negroes from Africa, to become slaves in the United States, after the 1st of January, 1808. The Articles of Confederation allowed any State to continue the traffic indefinitely, for the States were independent of each other, and the organic law was silent on the subject. The importation of slaves after the beginning of 1808 was prohibited under severe penalties by the Act of March 2, 1807. Acts on the subject have since been passed by Congress from time to time. That of 1820 declared the foreign slave-trade to be piracy. In July, 1862, Congress made provisions for carrying into effect a treaty with Great Britain for the suppression of the slave-trade. A domestic slave-trade was kept up until the beginning of the Civil War, in 1861. It was Virginia's largest source of revenue.

³⁹ This is a writ for delivering a person from false imprisonment, or for removing a person from

one court to another. The act of suspending the privilege of the writ must be done by the Executive, in the cases specified, under the authority of an Act of Congress.

⁴⁰ A deprivation of power to inherit or transmit property, a loss of civil rights, etc.

⁴¹ Declaring an act criminal or penal, which was innocent when committed.

⁴² This was to secure uniformity in taxes laid on persons or on lands.

⁴³ To secure free trade between the States, that one might not have an advantage over another, was the object of these two clauses.

⁴⁴ This gives to Congress the control of the money belonging to the Republic, and places it beyond the reach of the Executive.

⁴⁵ This was to secure equality of rights and privileges among the citizens, and to check the bad effects of foreign influences in the form of aristocratic distinctions.

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Powers of States Defined.

No State shall, without the Consent of Congress, lay any Duty of Tonnage, keep Troops, or Ships-of-War in time of Peace, enter into any Argument or Compact with another State, or with a foreign Power, or engage in War, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent Danger as will not admit of Delay.⁴⁶

ARTICLE II.

Executive Power, in Whom Vested.

SECTION 1. The Executive Power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his Office during the Term of four Years,⁴⁷ and together with the Vice President, chosen for the same Term, be elected, as follows:

Presidential Electors.

Each State shall appoint, in such Manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a Number of Electors, equal to the whole Number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no Senator or Representative, or Person holding an Office of Trust or Profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.

President and Vice-President, How Elected.

[The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, or whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and

have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said House shall in like manner choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States—the representative from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice-President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice President.⁴⁸]

Time of Choosing Electors.

The Congress may determine the Time of choosing the Electors, and the Day on which they shall give their Votes; which Day shall be the same throughout the United States.⁴⁹

Qualifications of the President.

No Person except a natural born Citizen, or a Citizen of the United States at the time of the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the Office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that Office who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty-five Years, and been fourteen Years a Resident within the United States.

Resort in Case of His Disability.

In Case of the Removal of the President from Office, or his Death, Resignation, or Inability to discharge the Powers and Duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by Law provide for the Case of Removal, Death, Resignation or Inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what Officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the Disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.⁵⁰

⁴⁶ By this section the people of the several States who, in conventions, ratified the National Constitution, invested the General Government with the supreme attributes of sovereignty exclusively, while reserving to themselves, or their respective commonwealths, the powers peculiar to the municipal authority of a State, which are essential to the regulation of its internal affairs, and the preservation of its domestic institutions from interference by another State, or by the National Government in a time of domestic tranquillity. The National Government is hereby empowered to act for the people of the whole Republic as a nation. Having no superior it is sovereign. See Story's *Commentaries on the Constitution*, Chapter XXXV.

⁴⁷ The Executive is a co-ordinate but not coequal branch of the Government with the legislative, for he is the agent provided in the Constitution for executing the laws of a superior, the Congress or legislature.

⁴⁸ This clause was afterward annulled, and Article

XII of the Amendments to this Constitution was substituted for it. Originally the electors voted by ballot, for two persons, one of whom, at least, should not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. The one who received the highest number of votes was declared to be President, and the one receiving the next highest number was declared to be Vice-President.

⁴⁹ See Amendments to the Constitution, Article XII. By an Act passed in 1845 (January 23), the electors must be chosen, in each State, on the Tuesday next after the first Monday in the month of November of the year in which they are to be elected. In the preceding portion of this history, when the election of a President is spoken of, it is meant that electors favorable to such candidates were chosen at that time.

⁵⁰ Provision has been made for the President of the Senate, for the time being, or if there shall be no such officer, the Speaker of the House of Representatives shall perform the executive functions.

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Salary of the President.

The President shall, at stated Times, receive for his Services, a Compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the Period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that Period any other Emolument from the United States, or any of them.⁶¹

Oath of Office.

Before he enter on the Execution of his Office, he shall take the following Oath or Affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the Office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my Ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

Duties of the President.

SECTION 2. The President shall be the Commander in chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the Militia of the several States, when called into the actual Service of the United States;⁶² he may require the Opinion, in writing, of the principal Officer in each of the executive Departments, upon any Subject relating to the Duties of their respective Offices, and he shall have Power to grant Reprieves and Pardons for Offences against the United States, except in Cases of Impeachment.⁶³

His Power to Make Treaties, Appoint Embassadors, Judges, etc.

He shall have Power, by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, to make Treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate,

and by the Advice and Consent of the Senate, shall appoint Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, Judges of the supreme Court, and all other Officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein hitherto provided for, and which shall be established by Law;⁶⁴ but the Congress may by Law vest the Appointment of such inferior Officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the Courts of Law, or in the Heads of Departments.

May Fill Vacancies.

The President shall have the Power to fill up all Vacancies that may happen during the Recess of the Senate, by granting Commissions which shall expire at the End of their next Session.⁶⁵

Power to Convene Congress.

SECTION 3. He shall from time to time give to the Congress Information of the State of the Union, and recommend to their Consideration such Measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient;⁶⁶ he may, on extraordinary Occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them,⁶⁷ and in Case of Disagreement between them, with Respect to the Time of Adjournment, he may adjourn them to such Time as he shall think proper; he shall receive Ambassadors and other public Ministers;⁶⁸ he shall take Care that the Laws be faithfully executed, and shall Commission all the officers of the United States.

How Officers May Be Removed.

SECTION 4. The President, Vice President, and all civil Officers of the United States, shall be removed from Office on Impeachment for, and Conviction of, Treason, Bribery, or other high Crimes or Misdemeanors.

⁶¹ The salary of the President was fixed by the first Congress at \$25,000 a year, and that of the Vice-President at \$8,000. Now the salary of the President is \$75,000, and the Vice-President, \$10,000. The salary for each entire term was so fixed, that the executive might be independent of the legislative department for it.

⁶² This was to insure unity and efficiency in action, when foreign war or domestic insurrection should call for the services of the army and navy. His large powers as Executive are directed by constitutional provisions. He is the arm of the nation to execute its bidding.

⁶³ It is presumed that the Executive is above the personal, local, or sectional influences that might be brought to bear, in these cases, on the courts or on legislative bodies. The Executive, according to a decision of the Supreme Court, has power to grant a pardon before trial or conviction. See Brightley's *Analytical Digest of the Laws of the United States*, page 7, note (e).

⁶⁴ The President is presumed to be more fully informed concerning the foreign relations of the

Republic, and the fitness of men for the highest offices. The Senate represents the legislative department of the Government in treaty-making and the appointment of high officers, and is a check on the Executive against any encroachments on the rights of Congress in the matter.

⁶⁵ This limitation to executive appointments is to prevent the President from neutralizing the action of the Senate as a co-ordinate power.

⁶⁶ It is the practice of the President to submit to Congress, at the opening of each session, a statement of national affairs. This is called his Annual Message. Washington and John Adams read their messages in person to the assembled Congress. Jefferson first sent his message to them by his private secretary. That practice is still kept up.

⁶⁷ The President, with his better information concerning national affairs, can best judge when an extraordinary session of Congress may be necessary.

⁶⁸ He may also refuse to receive them, and thereby annul or prevent diplomatic relations between the United States and any country.

CIVIL GOVERNMENT—THE NATIONAL CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE III.

Judicial Power, How Vested.

SECTION 1. The judicial Power of the United States, shall be vested in one supreme Court, and in such inferior Courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The Judges both of the supreme and inferior Courts, shall hold their Offices during good Behavior, and shall, at stated Times, receive for their Services, a Compensation, which shall not be diminished during their Continuance in Office.

To What Cases It Extends.

SECTION 2. The judicial Power shall extend to all Cases in Law and Equity, arising under this Constitution, the Laws of the United States, and Treaties made, or which shall be made, under their Authority;—to all cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls;—to all Cases of admiralty and maritime Jurisdiction; to Controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to Controversies between two or more States;—between a State and Citizens of another State;—between Citizens of different States;⁵⁹—between citizens of the same State claiming Lands under Grants of different States, and between a State, or the Citizens thereof, and foreign States, Citizens or Subjects.

Jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

In all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, and those in which a State shall be a Party, the supreme Court shall have original Jurisdiction. In all the other Cases before mentioned, the supreme Court shall have appellate Jurisdiction,

both as to Law and Fact, with such Exceptions, and under such Regulations as the Congress shall make.

Rules Respecting Trials.

The Trial of all Crimes, except in Cases of Impeachment, shall be by Jury; and such Trial shall be held in the State where the said Crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such Place or Places as the Congress may by Law have directed.⁶¹

Treason Defined.

SECTION 3. Treason against the United States, shall consist only in levying War against them, or in adhering to their Enemies, giving them Aid and Comfort.⁶²

No Person shall be convicted of Treason, unless on the Testimony of two Witnesses to the same overt Act, or on Confession in open Court.

How Punished.

The Congress shall have Power to declare the Punishment of Treason, but no Attainer of Treason shall work Corruption of Blood, or Forfeiture except during the Life of the Person attained.⁶³

ARTICLE IV.

Rights of States Defined.

SECTION 1. Full Faith and Credit shall be given in each State to the public Acts, Records, and judicial Proceedings of every other State.⁶⁴ And the Congress may by general Laws prescribe the Manner in which such Acts, Records and Proceedings shall be proved, and the Effect thereof.⁶⁵

⁵⁹ This section provides that the Supreme Court shall be a co-ordinate branch of the National Government, yet independent of and distinct from both the legislative and executive departments. The powers of the National Government, it will be seen, are threefold, namely, *legislative, judicial, and executive*. The first enacts laws, the second interprets them, and the third enforces them. The Supreme Court consists of one Chief Justice and several Associate Justices, who hold an annual session at the national capital, commencing on the day when Congress meets—first Wednesday in December.

⁶⁰ A citizen of the District of Columbia is not a citizen of a State, within the meaning of this Constitution. The District is under the immediate control of Congress, and has neither a legislature or governor.

⁶¹ See Amendments to the Constitution, Articles V, VI, VII, VIII.

⁶² At the trial of Aaron Burr, Chief Justice Marshall said: "Any combination to subvert by force the Government of the United States; violently to dismember the Union; to compel a change in the

administration, to coerce the repeal or adoption of a general law, is a *conspiracy to levy war*. And if conspiracy be carried into effect by the actual employment of force, by the embodying and assembling of men for the purpose of executing the treasonable design which was previously conceived, it amounts to levying war."

⁶³ The limit as to forfeiture applies only to the real estate of the criminal, which, at his death, must be restored to his heirs or assigns. The dower right of his wife also remains untouched. See Kent's *Commentaries on American Law*, ii. 464. This is more humane than the English law of treason. It does not punish the innocent wife and children of a criminal on account of his crimes.

⁶⁴ A judgment of a State court has the same credit, validity, and effect, in every other court within the United States, which it had in the court where it was rendered; and whatever pleas would be good to a suit thereon in such State, and none others, can be pleaded in any other court within the United States.—*Hampton v. McConnell*, 3 Wheaton, 234.

⁶⁵ On the 26th of May, 1790, Congress, by act, gave effect to this section.

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Privileges of Citizens.

SECTION 2. The Citizens of each State shall be entitled to all Privileges and Immunities of Citizens in the several States.⁶⁶

Executive Requisition.

A person charged in any State with Treason, Felony, of other Crime, who shall flee from Justice, and be found in another State, shall on Demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having Jurisdiction of the Crime.⁶⁷

Law Regulating Service or Labor.

No Person held to Service or Labor in one State, under the Laws thereof escaping to another, shall, in Consequence of any Law or Regulation therein, be discharged from such Service or Labor, but shall be delivered up on Claim of the Party to whom such Service or Labor may be due.⁶⁸

New States, How Formed and Admitted.

SECTION 3. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union;⁶⁹ but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the Junction of two or more States, or the States concerned as well as of the Congress.⁷⁰

Power of Congress Over Public Lands.

The Congress shall have Power to dispose of and make all needful Rules and Regula-

tions respecting the Territory or other Property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to Prejudice any Claims of the United States, or of any particular State.⁷¹

Republican Government Guaranteed.

SECTION 4. The Constitution shall guarantee to every State in this Union a Republican Form of Government,⁷² and shall protect each of them against Invasion; and on Application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature can not be convened) against domestic violence.⁷³

ARTICLE V.

Constitution, How to be Amended.

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose Amendments to this Constitution, or, on the Application of the Legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a Convention for proposing Amendments, which, in either Case, shall be valid to all Intents and Purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three fourths thereof, as the one or the other Mode of Ratification may be proposed by the Congress;⁷⁴ Provided that no Amendment which may be made prior to the Year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any Manner affect the first and fourth Clauses in the Ninth Section of the first Article;⁷⁵ and that no State, without its Consent, shall be deprived of its equal Suffrage in the Senate.⁷⁶

⁶⁶ This is a recognition of nationality—the supreme rights of the people as citizens of the United States. It decrees the right to all fundamental privileges and immunities which any State grants to its citizens, excepting those granted to corporations, or conferred by special local legislation. It is intended to secure and perpetuate a friendly intercourse throughout the Republic. It sets aside the erroneous assumption that National citizenship is subordinate to State citizenship.

⁶⁷ This is to aid the claims of justice, by preventing one portion of the Republic becoming an asylum for the criminals of another portion.

⁶⁸ This is the clause of the Constitution on which was based the provisions of the Fugitive-Slave Law of 1850. It applied to runaway slaves and apprentices. Congress gave effect to it by an act on the 12th of February, 1793, and another on the 18th of September, 1850. At the time when the Constitution was framed, slavery existed in all the States of the Union, excepting Massachusetts. By the operation of the Thirteenth Amendment of the Constitution, this clause has no relation to any other persons excepting fugitive indentured apprentices.

⁶⁹ The Congress is not compelled to admit a new State. It is left to the option of that body, whether any new State shall be admitted.

⁷⁰ States have been admitted in three ways: 1. By joint action of the Congress and a State, by which a portion of a State has been made a separate commonwealth, as in the case of Vermont, Kentucky, Maine, and Virginia. 2. By an act of Congress, creating a State directly from a Territory of the United States, as in the case of Tennessee. 3. By a joint resolution of Congress and a foreign State, such State may be admitted, as in the case of Texas.

⁷¹ This provides for the establishment, under the authority of Congress, of Territorial governments, which is the first step toward the formation of a State or States. The first government of the kind was that of the Northwestern Territory, established in 1787, and adopted by Congress under the National Constitution of the 7th of August, 1789.

⁷² No other form of government could exist within the United States, without peril to the Republic. By this section, the National Government is empowered to assume positive sovereignty as to the fundamental character of the State Government, leaving to the State territorial sovereignty, as to its municipal laws and domestic institutions, so long as they are consonant with a republican form of government.

⁷³ The States are prohibited from keeping troops as a standing army, or ships of war, in time of peace, individually; therefore it is made the duty of the sovereign power of the United States to protect the States against invasion and "domestic violence," such as treason, rebellion, or insurrection. When these exist in any State, it is the duty of the National Government to use its power in suppressing it.

⁷⁴ This article effectually checks any fundamental change in the Constitution, excepting in a way which recognizes the source of all true sovereignty, the PEOPLE, unless it be by sudden and violent revolution.

⁷⁵ See Section 9, page 747. The adoption of the Thirteenth Amendment of the Constitution renders this section a dead letter.

⁷⁶ Here, again, is a provision for securing the smaller States from encroachments on their rights by the larger States.

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ARTICLE VI.

Validity of Debts Recognized.

All Debts contracted and Engagements entered into, before the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.⁷⁷

Supreme Law of the Land Defined.

This Constitution and the Laws of the United States which shall be made in Pursuance thereof; and all Treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme Law of the Land; and the Judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any thing in the Constitution or Laws of any State to the Contrary notwithstanding.⁷⁸

Oath, of Whom Required, And What For.

The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the Members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial Officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by Oath or Affirmation, to support this Constitution;⁷⁹ but no religious Test shall ever be required as a Qualification to any Office or public Trust under the United States.⁸⁰

ARTICLE VII.

Ratification.

The Ratification of the Conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the Establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the Same.

DONE in Convention by the Unanimous Consent of the States present, the Seventeenth Day of September, in the Year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and Eighty-seven, and of the Independence of the United States the Twelfth. IN WITNESS whereof We have hereunto subscribed our Names.

GEO. WASHINGTON,
President, and deputy from Virginia.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

JOHN LANGDON,
NICHOLAS GILMAN.

MASSACHUSETTS.

NATHANIEL GORHAM,
RUFUS KING.

CONNECTICUT.

WILLIAM SAMUEL JOHNSON,
ROGER SHERMAN.

NEW YORK.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

NEW JERSEY.

WILLIAM LIVINGSTON,
DAVID BREARLEY,
WILLIAM PATTERSON,
JONATHAN DAYTON.

PENNSYLVANIA.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN,
THOMAS MIFFLIN,
ROBERT MORRIS,
GEORGE CLYMER,
THOMAS FITZSIMONS,
JARED INGERSOLL,
JAMES WILSON,
GOUVENEUR MORRIS

DELAWARE.

GEORGE REED,
GUNNING BEDFORD, JR.,
JOHN DICKINSON,
RICHARD BASSETT,
JACOB BROOM.

MARYLAND.

JAMES MCHENRY,
DANIEL OF ST. THOMAS JENIFER,
DANIEL CARROLL.

VIRGINIA.

JOHN BLAIR,
JAMES MADISON, JR.

NORTH CAROLINA.

WILLIAM BLOUNT,
RICHARD DOBBS SPAIGHT,
HUGH WILLIAMSON

⁷⁷ This was for the security to the creditors of the United States, of the payment of debts incurred during the Revolution. It was a national and positive recognition of the postulate in international law, that "Debts due to foreigners, and obligations to other creditors, survive a change in the Government."

⁷⁸ A clear and positive declaration of the supremacy of the National Government, resistance to which is treason.

⁷⁹ State officers are bound to support the Constitution because they may be required to perform some service in giving effect to that "supreme law of the land," in other words, of the Republic.

⁸⁰ This is to prevent a political union of Church and State, which is always prejudicial to the best interests of both.

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SOUTH CAROLINA.

CHARLES C. PINCKNEY,
CHARLES PINCKNEY,
JOHN RUTLEDGE,
PIERCE BUTLER.

GEORGIA.

WILLIAM FEW,
ABRAHAM BALDWIN.

Attest: WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

AMENDMENTS.¹

TO THE CONSTITUTION OF THE
UNITED STATES, RATIFIED AC-
CORDING TO THE PROVISIONS
OF THE FIFTH ARTICLE OF THE
FOREGOING CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I.

Freedom in Religion and Speech, and of the Press.

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.²

¹ At the first session of the First Congress, begun and held in the city of New York, on Wednesday, the 4th of March, 1789, many amendments to the National Constitution were offered for consideration. The Congress proposed ten of them to the legislatures of the several States. These were ratified by the constitutional number of State Legislatures in the middle of December, 1791. Another was proposed on the 5th of March, 1794, and was ratified in 1798, and still another on the 12th of December, 1803, which was ratified in 1804. These, with the other ten, became a part of the National Constitution. A thirteenth amendment was proposed by Congress on the 1st of May, 1810, but has never been ratified. It was to prohibit citizens of the United States accepting, claiming, receiving, or retaining any title of nobility or honor, or any present, pension, office, or emolument of any kind whatever, from any "person, king, prince, or foreign Power," without the consent of Congress, under the penalty of disfranchisement, or ceasing to be a citizen of the United States.

The Thirteenth Amendment was adopted by Congress on the 31st of January, 1865, and its ratification by the requisite number of State Legislatures was announced on the 18th of December following. A Fourteenth Amendment was proposed by a joint resolution adopted on the 13th of June, 1866, the object of which was to complete the work done by the Thirteenth Amendment, by guaranteeing all citizens an equality of civil and political rights, and the payment of the public debt; also to forbid the payment, by the general or any State

ARTICLE II.

Militia.

A well-regulated Militia being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear Arms, shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III.

Soldiers.

No Soldier shall, in time of peace be quartered in any house, without the consent of the Owner, nor in a time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.³

ARTICLE IV.

Search-Warrants.

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the person or things to be seized.⁴

ARTICLE V.

Capital Crimes.

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a Grand Jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the Militia, when in actual service in time of War or public danger;⁵ nor shall any person be subject for

government, of any debt or obligation incurred in aid of the rebellion, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave. This amendment was ratified, and on the 20th of July, 1868, the Secretary of State proclaimed it to be a part of the National Constitution. A Fifteenth Amendment was adopted by Congress on the 26th of February, 1869, and subsequently ratified. This was to secure the elective franchise for the colored race in our country, and is the crown of the Emancipation Act.

The Amendments to the Constitution, excepting the Twelfth, are authoritative declarations securing to the people and the several States certain rights, against any possible encroachments of Congress. They form a Bill of Rights.

² This article gives an additional assurance of religious freedom. See clause 3d, Article VI, of the Constitution. It also secures the invaluable right of the freedom of speech and of the press; and the privilege for the people of making their grievances known to the National Government.

³ This is to protect citizens, in time of peace, from the oppressions of military power, and to secure uniformity in the rules for quartering soldiers upon citizens in time of war.

⁴ The security of the private citizen from an infringement of his rights by public officers, herein guaranteed, is in accordance with the English maxim that "Every man's house is his castle."

⁵ In such cases offences are within the jurisdiction of the military and naval courts-martial.

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the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any Criminal Case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.⁶

ARTICLE VI.

Trial by Jury.

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have Compulsory process for obtaining Witnesses in his favor, and to have the Assistance of Counsel for his defence.

ARTICLE VII.

Suits at Common Law.

In Suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury, shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE VIII.

Bail.

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.⁷

ARTICLE IX.

Certain Rights Defined.

The enumeration, in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X.

Rights Reserved.

The powers not delegated to the United States, by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.⁸

ARTICLE XI.

Judicial Power Limited.

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by Citizens of another State, or by Citizens or Subjects of any foreign State.¹⁰

ARTICLE XII.

Amendment Respecting the Election of President and Vice-President.

The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice President, one of whom at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for Vice President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to The President of the Senate;—The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates and the votes shall then be counted;—the person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote; a

⁶ These prohibitions do not relate to State governments, but to the National Government, according to a decision of the Supreme Court. The several States make their own laws on these subjects.

⁷ These several amendments, concerning the operations of law through the instrumentality of the courts, are all intended to secure the citizen against the arbitrary exercise of power on the part of the judiciary.

⁸ That is to say, because certain rights and powers of the people are not enumerated in the Constitution, it is not to be inferred that they are denied.

⁹ This is simply an enunciation of the broad democratic principle, that the people are the true sources of all political power.

¹⁰ This is to limit the judicial power of the National courts. Previous to the adoption of this amendment, the Supreme Court had decided that the power of the National judiciary extended to suits brought by or against a State of the Republic. Now, no person has a right to commence a personal suit against a State, in the Supreme Court of the United States, for the recovery of property seized and sold by a State.

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quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not chose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice President shall be the Vice President, if such number be a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII.

Slavery Forbidden.

SECTION 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or in any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SECTION 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this Article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV.

Citizenship.

SECTION 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Apportionment Regulated by the Elective Franchise.

SECTION 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed; but when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature

thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, (being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States), or in any way abridged except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

Disabling Conditions.

SECTION 3. No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, or Elector of President and Vice President, or hold any office, civil or military under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two thirds of each House, remove such disability.¹¹

Treatment of the Public Debts.

SECTION 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties, for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States, or any State, shall assume or pay any debt or obligation, incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SECTION 5. Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this Article.

ARTICLE XV.

SECTION 1. The right of the citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SECTION 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this Article by appropriate legislation.

¹¹ Under the provisions of the Amnesty Act, passed May 22, 1872, the political disabilities have been removed from all persons excepting members of the Thirty-sixth Congress, heads of departments, members of diplomatic corps, and officers of the Army and Navy engaged in rebellion.

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